

LOCAL GOVERNMENT

BY

M. D. CHALMERS, M.A.

BARRISTER-AT-LAW



London
MACMILLAN AND CO.

1883

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THE CHINESE ECONOMY

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PREFACE.

OUR political constitution rests for the most part on the unwritten customs of England, but our system of Local Government is almost entirely regulated by statute law, even to its minutest details. There are about 650 Acts, or fragments of Acts, of general application relating to local affairs. These public Acts are supplemented by some thousands of local and special Acts, which apply to particular towns or districts, and accumulate at the rate of about sixty a year. Our local legislation begins with the statute *De Officio Coronatoris*, passed in 1275, and ends for the present with the Divided Parishes Act of 1882. Between these terminal marks the various Acts are scattered up and down in wild confusion. The reader's journey through this dark valley of statutory dry bones must needs be a dull one. Writing law books is not a good literary training, and I have no power of enlivening the pilgrimage, or making the way seem picturesque. I have tried, however, to make the book as intelligible and accurate as the nature of the subject admits of. My difficulty is this:—Every principle that can be stated is liable to be obscured by a dense overgrowth of local exceptions. To attempt to go into local

CHAPTER 1

The first chapter of the book is a general introduction to the subject of the book. It discusses the importance of the subject and the scope of the book. It also discusses the organization of the book and the notation used throughout the book.

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I have to tender my best thanks to Mr. R. S. Wright, who most kindly gave me copies of the Memoranda he prepared in 1877 for Mr. Whitbread and Mr. Rathbone. I have found them invaluable. For the early history of our local institutions I have mainly used Professor Stubbs's *Constitutional History*.

M. D. C.

1. **Introduction**
 2. **Background**
 3. **Methodology**
 4. **Results**
 5. **Conclusion**
 6. **References**

Abstract

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LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTORY.

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THE object of the present volume is to describe the existing machinery of Local Government in England, and give a short account of those matters locally administered which do not form the subject of separate volumes in the English Citizen Series. No English institution is intelligible apart from its history. All our local organisations have grown up spontaneously and irregularly. A brief historical sketch is therefore included in the description of the various local institutions which together with the aggregate constitute our system of local government.

By local government, as opposed to central government, is meant the administration of those matters which concern only the inhabitants of a particular district or

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LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

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By local government, as opposed to central government, is meant the administration of those matters which concern only the inhabitants of a particular district or

place, and which do not directly affect the nation at large. The whole duty of an English citizen may be subdivided into—first, his duty to the state; and secondly, his duty to his neighbours. It is with his duty to his neighbours or the neighbourhood that local government is concerned. This duty again may be subdivided into two main heads—one positive, the other negative. The positive duty is the obligation to succour and provide for the poor and the helpless. The administration of the Poor Law, the education of the children of the poor, and the provision of lunatic asylums, hospitals, and other aids for the sick, fall under this category. The negative duty may be summed up in the precept of the common law forbidding any man to create a nuisance.¹ It is the business of the Local Government to see that the neighbourhood is supplied with pure water, that the food is unadulterated, that the air is uncontaminated, that streets are properly lighted, and that the roads are reasonably safe and sufficient. Fresh air, sound food, and good water, are the essential conditions of public health, and the knowledge of their necessity is happily spreading. As long as general principles only are regarded, there is not much room for controversy concerning the appropriate sphere of local government. The difficulty consists in the application of admitted principles when the question crops up in a concrete form. For instance, prisons formerly were managed by the local authorities. County prisons were under the control of the justices, and borough prisons under the control of the municipal councils. But by an act of 1877 the management of all

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prisons was transferred from the local authorities to the Central Government, as represented by the Home Secretary. In opposition to this act it was urged that prisons stand on precisely the same footing as workhouses and lunatic asylums, which are properly left to the management of local authorities. The controversy over the transfer was bitter and prolonged. Yet the principle in obedience to which the transfer was effected is admitted on all hands. It is essential that criminal justice should, as far as possible, be administered throughout the land with absolute uniformity. Gaols are part of the machinery of criminal justice, and as long as they were administered by independent local bodies the requisite uniformity in carrying out sentences of imprisonment could not be obtained.

Turning now from the sphere of local government to its form, it is clear that whatever be the constitution of a State, a vast amount of matters must be locally administered. These matters may be administered either by the officers and nominees of the Central Government or by the inhabitants of the particular districts concerned. In England local affairs for the most part are administered by the inhabitants of the particular local areas or their representatives. Local self-government is the prevailing system. Constitutional writers lay great stress on its political importance. They regard a vigorous system of local self-government as the chief corner-stone of political freedom. "England alone among the nations of the earth," says Sir Erskine May, "has maintained for centuries a constitutional polity; and her liberties may be ascribed above all things to her free local institutions. Since the days of

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their Saxon ancestors, her sons have learned at their own gates the duties and responsibilities of citizens. Associating for the common good, they have become exercised in public affairs."¹ "Local assemblies of citizens," says De Tocqueville, discussing the townships of New England, "constitute the strength of free nations. Town meetings are to liberty what primary schools are to science; they bring it within the people's reach; they teach men how to use and how to enjoy it. A nation may establish a system of free government, but without the spirit of municipal institutions (*institutions communales*) it cannot have the spirit of liberty. The transient passions and the interests of an hour, or the chance of circumstances, may have created the external forms of independence; but the despotic tendency which has been repelled will sooner or later inevitably reappear."² Mr. John Stuart Mill is equally emphatic. "I have dwelt," he remarks, "in strong language on the importance of that portion of the operation of free institutions, which may be called the public education of the citizens. Now of this education the local administrative institutions are the chief instrument."³ "The principle of local self-government," say the Royal Sanitary Commission of 1869, "has been generally recognised as of the essence of our national vigour." It would be futile to multiply quotations on the constitutional advantages of local institutions. Local government is not endangered in England. Its sphere is likely to be increased rather than diminished. A legislative

¹ *Const. Hist.* vol. iii., ch. xiv.

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arbitrarily varied, but the relations of an Indian village with the sovereign power are much the same as under native rule. The still surface of its life is not troubled with the advent of any political ideas. The villager regards the collection of the land tax as a disagreeable manifestation of *vis major*. How it is spent he neither knows nor cares. The idea that those who pay taxes ought to control or derive benefit from their expenditure never occurred to him even in his dreams. The affairs of the family and village community to which he belongs alone interest him. What passes beyond those limits concerns him not. Yet the headman of an Indian village is much more than the chairman of an English vestry; the punchayet or council of elders wields far greater powers than any vestry, and the village community governs itself much more completely than any English parish or New England township. The comparison is not an idle one. There is a real relationship between the Indian village community, the English parish, and the American township. Parish and township alike can trace their pedigree up to the mark system of our Teutonic forefathers. Northern India is peopled with an Aryan race, and the village community is very closely akin to the old Teutonic mark. All the essential features of the one are reproduced in the other. The village community, like the mark, is an economic as well as an administrative unit. Each alike is peopled by a group of families bound together by a more or less fictitious tie of kinship, who exercise joint ownership over its lands. The lands thus held are meted out among the co-proprietors on kindred principles, and the rights and duties of the members of the community

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The following table shows the results of the regression analysis for the dependent variable "Number of children in the household" (N = 1,000). The independent variables are "Age of the head of household" and "Gender of the head of household". The table includes the coefficient estimates, standard errors, t-statistics, and p-values for each variable.

Variable	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-statistic	p-value
Age of the head of household	0.001	0.001	1.2	0.23
Gender of the head of household (Male = 1, Female = 0)	-0.05	0.02	-2.5	0.01
Constant	1.5	0.1	15.0	<0.001

The regression results indicate that the number of children in the household is positively related to the age of the head of household, but the relationship is not statistically significant at the 5% level. The gender of the head of household is negatively related to the number of children in the household, and this relationship is statistically significant at the 5% level.

1. The first step is to identify the problem or question that needs to be addressed. This involves understanding the context and the specific requirements of the task.

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 3. **Methodology**
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inter se are conceived on similar lines.¹ The administrative features of the mark are now represented in England by the parish or township, while traces of its economic aspects still survive in manorial customs and rights of common, though they are fast disappearing. In India, until the last few years, society has seemed absolutely stationary. The village community of to-day is the village community of hundreds and probably thousands of years ago. The Englishman in India is brought face to face with archaic forms of life in perfect preservation, and the study of an Indian village as Sir H. S. Maine has shown, may throw a curious light on much that is unintelligible in our own local customs and institutions. It seems strange that two branches of the Aryan race, starting with institutions so similar, should develop such different histories. Be the cause of this divergence what it may, the history of India shows that self-governing local institutions, possessed of intense vitality, may exist apart from any form of representative government, and be successfully administered by a people who have no notion of political freedom. Possibly political freedom and constitutional government are more closely connected with the existence of self-government in large towns and cities, rather than in small and feeble organisations like the village communities. The English boroughs in their time fought a good fight for English liberties. If this view be sound, an important political experiment is now being tried in India by the creation of municipalities modelled on the system of English municipal corporations. Stationary as Indian society seems, and is, there are indications of an approaching change. Western

¹ See Sir H. S. Maine's *Village Communities*, p. 15.

the first of these is the fact that the majority of the specimens are of the same sex, and that the majority of the specimens are of the same age. This is a very unusual occurrence, and it is therefore of great interest to the anthropologist. The second fact is that the majority of the specimens are of the same race, and that the majority of the specimens are of the same sex. This is also a very unusual occurrence, and it is therefore of great interest to the anthropologist. The third fact is that the majority of the specimens are of the same age, and that the majority of the specimens are of the same sex. This is also a very unusual occurrence, and it is therefore of great interest to the anthropologist. The fourth fact is that the majority of the specimens are of the same race, and that the majority of the specimens are of the same sex. This is also a very unusual occurrence, and it is therefore of great interest to the anthropologist. The fifth fact is that the majority of the specimens are of the same age, and that the majority of the specimens are of the same sex. This is also a very unusual occurrence, and it is therefore of great interest to the anthropologist. The sixth fact is that the majority of the specimens are of the same race, and that the majority of the specimens are of the same sex. This is also a very unusual occurrence, and it is therefore of great interest to the anthropologist. The seventh fact is that the majority of the specimens are of the same age, and that the majority of the specimens are of the same sex. This is also a very unusual occurrence, and it is therefore of great interest to the anthropologist. The eighth fact is that the majority of the specimens are of the same race, and that the majority of the specimens are of the same sex. This is also a very unusual occurrence, and it is therefore of great interest to the anthropologist. The ninth fact is that the majority of the specimens are of the same age, and that the majority of the specimens are of the same sex. This is also a very unusual occurrence, and it is therefore of great interest to the anthropologist. The tenth fact is that the majority of the specimens are of the same race, and that the majority of the specimens are of the same sex. This is also a very unusual occurrence, and it is therefore of great interest to the anthropologist.

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civilisation and English law, when brought into contact with native usages and institutions, act on them as powerful solvents. Silently and unconsciously their dissolution is being effected. The introduction of English legal procedure, including the taking of land in execution, has done much in many parts of India to break up the system of village communities. In many of the large towns the caste system shows signs of breaking down before the spread of English education among the richer classes.¹ Other less distinctive native institutions are undergoing a similar process of decay. On the one hand, the bonds which knit native society together are being loosened. On the other, the English rulers of India, by the introduction of their municipal system and other reforms in the same direction, are trying to teach the native races the lesson of self-government, and by this and other means to reconstruct native society on a more durable and beneficial basis. The outcome of this experiment is a matter which lies *in gremio deorum*. The problem is interesting, but the future alone can solve it. Meanwhile the experiment has this advantage: it can be watched by us in England at a safe distance, and without paying for it.

It is not worth while to enlarge on the speculative aspects of local government. The relations of local institutions with political freedom may be left to others to determine. The object of this series is a practical one—namely, to give some information to an English

¹ It would be interesting to work out a comparison between the trade castes of India and the trade guilds of the middle ages which are now represented in England by the city companies. The right and duty of the members to eat together is not the only point of similarity between the English and Indian guilds.

	NAME	ADDRESS
1	JOHN DOE	123 MAIN ST, NEW YORK, NY 10001
2	JANE SMITH	456 E 10TH AVE, NEW YORK, NY 10003
3	BILLY BROWN	789 W 5TH ST, NEW YORK, NY 10011
4	ALICE WHITE	101 N 1ST ST, NEW YORK, NY 10002
5	CHARLIE BLACK	202 S 2ND ST, NEW YORK, NY 10004
6	DORIS GRAY	303 E 3RD ST, NEW YORK, NY 10002
7	FRANK GREEN	404 W 4TH ST, NEW YORK, NY 10014
8	Helen King	505 N 5TH ST, NEW YORK, NY 10001
9	IRVING LEE	606 S 6TH ST, NEW YORK, NY 10013
10	JACK MILLER	707 E 7TH ST, NEW YORK, NY 10002
11	KATHY NIXON	808 W 8TH ST, NEW YORK, NY 10012
12	LARRY PETERSON	909 N 9TH ST, NEW YORK, NY 10003
13	MARY ROSS	1010 S 10TH ST, NEW YORK, NY 10014
14	NED STONE	1111 E 11TH ST, NEW YORK, NY 10002
15	OLIVIA TAYLOR	1212 W 12TH ST, NEW YORK, NY 10011
16	PETER WALKER	1313 N 13TH ST, NEW YORK, NY 10004
17	RUTH YOUNG	1414 S 14TH ST, NEW YORK, NY 10013
18	SAM ZIMMERMAN	1515 E 15TH ST, NEW YORK, NY 10002
19	TOM COOPER	1616 W 16TH ST, NEW YORK, NY 10012
20	VICKI HARRIS	1717 N 17TH ST, NEW YORK, NY 10003
21	WILLIAMS	1818 S 18TH ST, NEW YORK, NY 10014
22	Xavier	1919 E 19TH ST, NEW YORK, NY 10002
23	YOUNG	2020 W 20TH ST, NEW YORK, NY 10011
24	Zoe	2121 N 21ST ST, NEW YORK, NY 10004
25	ADAMS	2222 S 22ND ST, NEW YORK, NY 10013
26	BEN	2323 E 23RD ST, NEW YORK, NY 10002
27	CAROL	2424 W 24TH ST, NEW YORK, NY 10012
28	DAVID	2525 N 25TH ST, NEW YORK, NY 10003
29	EMILY	2626 S 26TH ST, NEW YORK, NY 10014
30	FRANK	2727 E 27TH ST, NEW YORK, NY 10002

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citizen as to his actual rights and duties as such. In the next chapter an attempt will be made to lay before the reader a general view of our local institutions considered in the aggregate. In the succeeding chapters particular local areas, and the authorities which rule them, will be considered in detail. Before, however, taking this bird's-eye view of our subject, it may not be amiss to pause for a moment to compare one or two of the salient features of local and central government in England, and to call attention to the points of similarity and contrast.

In local affairs, as in our political constitution, the general type of government is representative. Our local institutions, like our political constitution, have developed spontaneously, and both alike bristle with anomalies. Englishmen, however, care but little for symmetry. The fact that an institution is anomalous, or a compromise in administering it illogical, does not disturb them so long as the thing works even tolerably. Take, for instance, the case of county government, which constitutes the most conspicuous exception to the rule of representative government in local matters. The governing body in the county consists of the justices, who are appointed by the Crown on the recommendation of the Lord-Lieutenant. Logically, whatever reasons there may be in favour of the representative system as regards the Central Government, and as regards other local authorities, apply equally to the county. Historically, too, the counties have every claim to an elective government. In Saxon times the system was thoroughly representative. The fact is that in the hands of the justices

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county government has been both pure and economical, though perhaps not always disinterested. Englishmen consequently have hitherto acquiesced in a system of class government which is wholly foreign to the generality of their institutions. Various schemes have been propounded from time to time for the re-establishment of representative county boards, but all hitherto have perished still-born. Perhaps the next venture may be more prosperous.

As regards the franchise, the right to vote at parliamentary elections and the right to vote for purposes of local government alike rest on the possession or occupation of land or houses. No amount of mere funded property, no payment of income tax, will give a vote. As regards taxation, however, there is this difference between national taxes and local rates: the Central Government taxes both real and personal property, while rates fall exclusively on land and houses. This different incidence of burden is important because of the question of Treasury subventions for local purposes, and of the further question whether personal property should not be made to contribute to the rates. A large part of local expenditure directly affects and benefits houses and land; but such matters as poor relief and elementary education have no connection with local property. It would therefore seem fair that the expenses of such matters should fall at any rate in part on actual income as well as on visible expenditure. As regards the method of voting at parliamentary elections, every voter is on an equality with respect to the number of votes that he can give, the number depending, except in the anomalous three-cornered constituencies, on the

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number of members to be elected. At local elections various systems of voting have been introduced. In some cases—as, for instance, in local board elections—the system of plural voting prevails; and the number of votes that an elector can give varies from one to six, according to the amount at which he is rated. Mr. John Stuart Mill approves this principle in local matters. There are, he says, the same strong reasons for plurality of votes as in the case of the National Parliament, and there is not so decisive an objection in the inferior as in the higher body to making the plural voting depend on a mere money qualification; for the honest and frugal dispensation of money forms so much larger a part of the business of the local than of the national body that there is more justice as well as policy in allowing a greater proportional influence to those who have a money interest at stake.¹

Another point of contrast is the position of women. At a parliamentary election a woman cannot vote, neither can she serve as a member of Parliament. But a woman may exercise all local franchises if she be qualified in other respects, and she also may fill most local offices. It has been judicially decided that a woman may be a commissioner of sewers, governor of a workhouse, keeper of a prison, gaoler, parish constable, returning officer for a parliamentary election, guardian, and overseer of the poor. In the case of the overseer, the judges rather ungraciously intimated that a man ought to be appointed, but that if there was no man available a woman was the next best thing. Women have come forward lately in a good many instances to serve on school boards, but

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The following table shows the results of the regression analysis for the dependent variable "Number of children in the household" (N = 1,000). The independent variables are "Age of the head of household" and "Gender of the head of household". The table includes the coefficient estimates, standard errors, t-statistics, and p-values for each variable.

Variable	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-statistic	p-value
Age of the head of household	0.05	0.02	2.50	0.01
Gender of the head of household (Male = 1, Female = 0)	-0.10	0.03	-3.33	0.00
Constant	1.50	0.10	15.00	0.00

The regression results indicate that the number of children in the household is positively related to the age of the head of household and negatively related to the gender of the head of household. Specifically, for every one-year increase in the age of the head of household, the number of children in the household increases by 0.05, holding all other variables constant. Conversely, for every one-unit increase in the gender variable (from female to male), the number of children in the household decreases by 0.10, holding all other variables constant.

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Although both central and local government alike rest on a broad basis of popular representation, there is a striking difference in the class of men who are elected to administer the two systems. Speaking broadly, in the case of the Central Government, political power rests with the masses, but their mandates are carried out by the higher classes,—that is to say, by men of first-rate education and intelligence. As a general rule, the administration of local affairs has fallen into the hands of the small tradesman class, and the same class has also the main voting power. It is of course right and just that the lower middle class should be represented on local governing bodies; but the abstention of the more educated classes from taking their share in local government and the non-representation of the working classes on local executive bodies constitute great and growing evils. As population increases, and as science enlarges our knowledge of sanitary matters and conditions and the laws of hygiene, the problems to be attacked by local government become more complex, and require more trained intelligence to deal with them. A large proportion of the matters administered by local bodies—as, for instance, elementary education, the relief of the poor, and a good many sanitary improvements—directly and

The first of these is the fact that the United States is a young nation. It is only about 150 years old, and its history is therefore a very recent one. This is a great advantage, for it allows us to see the development of the nation from its beginning to the present day. We can see how the United States has grown from a small colony to a great power, and how it has changed its government and its society over the years. This is a very interesting and important study, and it is one that we should all be interested in.

The second of these is the fact that the United States is a very large and powerful nation. It is the third largest country in the world, and it has the most powerful economy. This is a great advantage, for it allows us to see the United States in its own right, and not as a small colony. We can see how the United States has become a world power, and how it has influenced the rest of the world. This is a very interesting and important study, and it is one that we should all be interested in.

The third of these is the fact that the United States is a very diverse nation. It is made up of many different people, and it has many different cultures. This is a great advantage, for it allows us to see the United States as a whole, and not as a collection of small parts. We can see how the United States has become a melting pot of different cultures, and how it has created a new and unique society. This is a very interesting and important study, and it is one that we should all be interested in.

The fourth of these is the fact that the United States is a very democratic nation. It has a long history of freedom and democracy, and it is one of the most democratic countries in the world. This is a great advantage, for it allows us to see the United States as a model of democracy, and as a country that we can all learn from. We can see how the United States has created a system of government that is based on the principles of freedom and democracy, and how it has maintained this system for so long. This is a very interesting and important study, and it is one that we should all be interested in.

The fifth of these is the fact that the United States is a very beautiful nation. It has many beautiful landscapes, and it has many beautiful cities. This is a great advantage, for it allows us to see the United States as a country that is worth visiting, and as a country that we can all love. We can see how the United States has created a country that is both beautiful and powerful, and how it has maintained this country for so long. This is a very interesting and important study, and it is one that we should all be interested in.

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Further analogies and divergences between our local and central systems will doubtless suggest themselves as the reader goes on, but it would be out of place here to pursue the subject further.

A very brief review of the French system, which has its merits as well as its demerits, may perhaps be useful for purposes of comparison. The strong and weak points of our own local institutions will come out more clearly when contrasted with the corresponding institutions of some other nation. France, for purposes of local government, is divided into eighty-six departments, which correspond roughly to our counties; the departments are subdivided into arrondissements, and the arrondissements, again, are subdivided into communes. The commune therefore constitutes the administrative unit, the larger areas being multiples of it. The total number of communes is 35,989,—that is to say, rather more than double the number of English parishes.¹ The government of the department is conducted by a Préfet and a Conseil-Général, the former having the executive power, while the latter exercises deliberative functions. The préfet is a paid officer appointed by the Central Government and directly under its control. He represents the Central Government in all local affairs, presides over the council, and is the head administrative officer of the district. The police are

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under him, and it is his duty to see that the law is maintained and enforced. In legal and judicial matters he is assisted by a small Conseil de Préfecture, the members of which are appointed by the Central Government. The Conseil-Général is an elective body. The councillors are elected for six years. One half the council retire every three years by rotation. Its meetings are public, and the minutes of its meetings must be furnished to the newspapers. By a curious but sensible provision of the law no newspaper may criticise the proceedings of the conseil-général without printing in the same number the minutes which relate to the subject criticised. The conseil-général fixes the sum to be paid by the department as land tax, house tax, or personal tax, and apportioned out the sum total among the different arrondissements, and decides appeals from the arrondissements that are dissatisfied with their assessments. It manages all departmental property, controls the construction of departmental roads, bridges, and ferries, and is responsible for their repair. It superintends generally all public works of departmental interest. Lunatic asylums, the maintenance of poor children (*enfants assistés*), and the departmental poorhouses, are also within its jurisdiction. It controls the decision of the communes as regards fairs and markets, and the alteration of *octroi* duties. Finally, it audits the departmental accounts. All departmental payments, it seems, are made by officers of the Central Government. The Departmental Budget is published annually. The budget distinguishes between ordinary receipts and extraordinary receipts, such as special taxes or loans. It also distinguishes ordinary from extraordinary expenditure. The arrondissement is not, like the

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Abstract—The purpose of this study was to determine if there were differences in the prevalence of musculoskeletal disorders between two groups of nurses working in different departments of a hospital. The sample consisted of 100 nurses from the Intensive Care Unit (ICU) and 100 nurses from the Emergency Department (ED). Data were collected through a self-administered questionnaire. The results showed that the prevalence of musculoskeletal disorders was higher among ICU nurses than among ED nurses. The most common disorder was low back pain, followed by neck pain and shoulder pain. The findings suggest that interventions to reduce the risk of musculoskeletal disorders should be targeted towards ICU nurses.

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1. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 1997; 277: 1001-1005.

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under him, and it is his duty to see that the law is maintained and enforced. In legal and judicial matters he is assisted by a small Conseil de Préfecture, the members of which are appointed by the Central Government. The Conseil-Général is an elective body. The councillors are elected for six years. One half the council retire every three years by rotation. Its meetings are public, and the minutes of its meetings must be furnished to the newspapers. By a curious but sensible provision of the law no newspaper may criticise the proceedings of the conseil-général without printing in the same number the minutes which relate to the subject criticised. The conseil-général fixes the sum to be paid by the department as land tax, house tax, or personal tax, and apportioned out the sum total among the different arrondissements, and decides appeals from the arrondissements that are dissatisfied with their assessments. It manages all departmental property, controls the construction of departmental roads, bridges, and ferries, and is responsible for their repair. It superintends generally all public works of departmental interest. Lunatic asylums, the maintenance of poor children (*enfants assistés*), and the departmental poorhouses, are also within its jurisdiction. It controls the decision of the communes as regards fairs and markets, and the alteration of *octroi* duties. Finally, it audits the departmental accounts. All departmental payments, it seems, are made by officers of the Central Government. The Departmental Budget is published annually. The budget distinguishes between ordinary receipts and extraordinary receipts, such as special taxes or loans. It also distinguishes ordinary from extraordinary expenditure. The arrondissement is not, like the

department, a body corporate, but merely a territorial division. It is presided over by a sous-préfet and elective council. The council examines the assessment made on the arrondissement by the conseil-général, and contests it if it thinks fit. It further fixes what proportion of the assessment is to be paid by each commune. The Commune is a corporate body. Its affairs are managed by a Maire and a Conseil-Municipal. The maire is appointed by the Central Government. The conseil-municipal is an elective body. The maire is an unpaid officer, and the préfet has the power of suspending him. He is the registrar of births, deaths, and marriages. He represents the Central Government in the commune, and he represents the commune with other bodies. He appoints most of the communal officials, and is empowered to make bye-laws on such subjects as the abatement of nuisances, and other matters relating to public health, the sale of provisions, the regulation of street traffic, the preservation of order in public places, and the control of theatres. The Communal Budget is presented by the maire, and voted by the conseil-municipal. The members of the conseil-municipal are elected for three years. The duties of that body consist in assisting and to some extent controlling the maire, and in the management of the communal property and affairs. Among the functions allotted to the commune are—the making and repair of communal roads, the enclosure and maintenance of burial-grounds, and the provision of moneys for the local police, elementary education, and the maintenance of foundling children. The communes vary immensely in size, but the only difference in constitution between a small and a large commune

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consists in the number of members on the conseil-municipal. This number varies from ten to thirty-six, according to the population. When the number of inhabitants is less than 500 the conseil consists of ten councillors, and when the number of inhabitants exceeds 60,000 the number of councillors is thirty-six. It is not likely that ten competent men can often be found in little country villages. This probably is one reason why recourse is had to officialism, and so much power is placed in the hands of the maire, who is the nominee of the Central Government. From a constitutional point of view, the remedy perhaps is worse than the disease. Whatever may be the faults of English local government, it cannot be accused of fostering officialism or of having created a too efficient bureaucracy.

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 Journal of Management Education in the field of management
 education. It highlights the journal's role in providing
 a platform for the dissemination of research findings and
 the advancement of the discipline. The second part of the
 paper focuses on the journal's commitment to diversity and
 inclusion, emphasizing the need for a more equitable and
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CHAPTER II.

GENERAL VIEW OF ENGLISH LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

Distribution and numbers of Local Authorities—Conflict of jurisdictions—Confusion of existing system—Local Finance—Tabular Statement of existing system.

It is hardly possible to give a correct and intelligible general view of the various local institutions which in the aggregate make up the system of local government in England. English local government, indeed, can only be called a system on the *lucus a non lucendo* principle. There is neither co-ordination nor subordination among the numerous authorities which regulate our local affairs. The Census Commissioners of 1871 remark, in mild surprise, that it is a peculiarity of the administration of this country that nearly every public authority divides the country differently, and with little or no reference to other divisions. Each authority appears to be unacquainted with the existence, or at least with the work, of the others. "There is no labyrinth so intricate," says Mr. Goschen, "as the chaos of our local laws." Local government in this country may be fitly described as consisting of a chaos of areas, a chaos of authorities, and a chaos of rates. Mr. Rathbone stated in the House of Commons that in the place where he lived there were no less than

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thirty-five different local authorities. The local government areas into which England and Wales are divided may be enumerated as follows:—There are 52 counties—40 in England and 12 in Wales, 239 municipal boroughs, 70 Improvement Act districts, 1006 urban sanitary districts, 41 port sanitary authorities, and 577 rural sanitary districts; 2051 school-board districts, 424 highway districts, 853 burial-board districts, 649 unions, 194 lighting and watching districts, 14,946 poor-law parishes, 5064 highway parishes not included in urban or highway districts, and about 13,000 ecclesiastical parishes.¹ The total number of local authorities who tax the English ratepayer is 27,069, and they tax him by means of 18 different kinds of rates.²

The boundaries of a union never intersect the boundaries of a poor law parish, for the unions are aggregates of parishes—but with this exception; all the various areas intersect and overlap. For instance, 85 parishes and 181 unions are situated partly in one county, partly in another. All these areas are governed by different authorities, elected or selected by different means and bodies. The metropolis is governed by a congeries of authorities and enactments peculiar to itself. In this catalogue of districts, registration districts and the old division of the country into hundreds (or wapentakes, as they are called in the north) have been disregarded. The only practical importance of the hundred now consists in its liability to make compensation for damage done by rioters within its limits. The procedure

¹ *Census Returns*, 1871, as corrected by *Preliminary Report*, 1881, and *Local Government Directory*, 1881.

² See *Eleventh Report of Local Government Board*, p. 385.

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for enforcing this liability against the inhabitants is provided by an Act of 1827,¹ but proceedings under it are hardly ever resorted to. For the administration of justice the country is divided into circuits, counties, county-court districts, petty sessional divisions, and police divisions. These divisions, with the exception of the counties, have hardly any connection with the divisions of the country for purposes of local government. There are also about twenty towns, called "counties of cities" and "counties of towns," which, for the administration of justice and some other purposes, are deemed to be separate counties. To add to the reigning confusion the same local name may be applied to different areas; for instance, the parliamentary borough, the municipal borough, and the union of the same name, are often not conterminous. Chester furnishes an example of this anomaly.

A single county may be taken as a specimen to illustrate the distribution of the various local government areas. Bedfordshire, the first of the counties in alphabetical order, will do as well as any other. Bedfordshire, with an area of 97,000 acres, and a population of 41,000 persons, has one court of quarter sessions, and is divided into 9 hundreds, 7 petty sessional divisions, and 8 lieutenancy subdivisions. The police divisions, with two exceptions, coincide with the petty sessional divisions. The county contains 3 municipal boroughs; 3 urban sanitary districts; 6 rural sanitary districts, some of which stretch into adjoining counties; 6 highway districts,

¹ 7 and 8 Geo. IV. c. 31; see also 17 and 18 Vict. c. 104, s. 477—Plunder of Wreck; and 32 and 33 Vict. c. 47, s. 5—Service of Process.

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two of which stretch into adjoining counties; 6 burial-board districts; 4 lighting and watching districts; 45 school districts, four of which run into adjoining counties; 6 unions, some of which overstep the county borders; 134 entire poor-law parishes, and portions of three more. All these divisions overlap and interlace. Each of them is governed by its own petty authority, which for the most part wholly ignores the existence of any other division or authority. Passing now from the local distribution of the various areas and authorities, let us next examine the personal application of our system of local government, and see how this clashing of jurisdictions affects the individual citizen. Mr. R. S. Wright illustrates the result as follows:—"The inhabitant of a borough lives in a fourfold area for purposes of local government,—namely, in the borough, in a parish, in a union, and in a county; none of these are conterminous, unless by accident, with any of the others; and different parts of the borough are or may be in different parishes, and in different unions, and in different counties. He is or may be governed by a sixfold authority—the municipal council, the vestry, the school board, the burial board, the guardians, and the county quarter sessions; all these are different bodies, and inhabitants of different parts of the same borough are or may be under different vestries, burial boards, guardians, and quarter sessions. He is or may be subject to a borough rate, a general district rate, a poor rate, a burial rate, and a county rate.

"The inhabitant of a local-board district also lives in four kinds of districts—the local-board district, the parish, the union, and the county. He is or may be under six governments—the local board, the vestry,

two of which stretch into adjoining counties; 6 burial-board districts; 4 lighting and watching districts; 45 school districts, four of which run into adjoining counties; 6 unions, some of which overstep the county borders; 134 entire poor-law parishes, and portions of three more. All these divisions overlap and interlace. Each of them is governed by its own petty authority, which for the most part wholly ignores the existence of any other division or authority. Passing now from the local distribution of the various areas and authorities, let us next examine the personal application of our system of local government, and see how this clashing of jurisdictions affects the individual citizen. Mr. R. S. Wright illustrates the result as follows:—"The inhabitant of a borough lives in a fourfold area for purposes of local government,—namely, in the borough, in a parish, in a union, and in a county; none of these are conterminous, unless by accident, with any of the others; and different parts of the borough are or may be in different parishes, and in different unions, and in different counties. He is or may be governed by a sixfold authority—the municipal council, the vestry, the school board, the burial board, the guardians, and the county quarter sessions; all these are different bodies, and inhabitants of different parts of the same borough are or may be under different vestries, burial boards, guardians, and quarter sessions. He is or may be subject to a borough rate, a general district rate, a poor rate, a burial rate, and a county rate.

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the union, the burial board, the quarter sessions, and the school board. Moreover, any of these districts or authorities, except the local board and its district, may be different for inhabitants of different parts of the same local-board district. There is a case of a farm of 200 acres in Gloucestershire which some few years ago was in twelve parishes, and subject to about fifty rates.

"The inhabitant of a rural parish lives in a parish, a union, in a county, and probably in a highway district. He is or may be governed by a vestry, a school board, a burial board, a highway board, the guardians, and the justices. There are a multitude of minor matters in respect of which the districts, authorities, and rates are or may be additionally multiplied and complicated in all the above cases."¹

The state of things above described results from the English habit of legislating by piecemeal. Special authorities and districts have been created for special purposes, as occasion seemed to require. As society has outgrown existing institutions, the defects and shortcomings have been remedied by patchwork. The result is that the country is covered with a perfect jungle of jurisdictions, each presided over by its own authority. This overgrowth of authorities is firmly rooted to the soil by vested interests. Each petty board or authority must have its own staff and officers kept up at the expense of the ratepayers, however unnecessary this may be for the purpose of doing the work. Confusion and extravagance are the characteristic features of the whole system. The consequent waste of time, power, and money is

¹ Wright's *Memo.*, No. 1, p. 33.

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immense. Reform appears to be required in two directions—first, the simplification of areas; and second, the consolidation of authorities. Some area should be chosen as the Local Government unit, and the larger areas should be multiples of that unit. Further, a separate authority should not be created or kept up for every function that has to be discharged. Within certain limits the same authority can very well deal with different subject-matters through separate departments. The Central Government of the country is carried on by a small Cabinet working through different departments, and the extension of this principle to local affairs has frequently been recommended. Take for instance the case of a municipal borough. As it is, the town council is, in most cases, the sanitary authority for the place. Why should it not also discharge the functions of the guardians, of the burial board, and perhaps also of the school board? The different departments could be superintended by different committees of the Council. In rural districts the Board of Guardians is the sanitary authority. Why should not the guardians be invested with the powers of the highway board, the burial board, and the lighting committee, where there is one? The present system involves a very needless multiplication of officers and elections. The elections of the different local authorities are held at different times. The qualifications of electors and candidates differ in each case, as do also the mode of election, the returning-officer and his staff, and the period for which office is held. The table inserted at the end of this chapter, which is taken from a recent parliamentary paper, summarizes the conditions under which local elections are

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at present conducted.¹ A glance at this table brings home to the mind more forcibly than adjectives what a waste of power must necessarily result from the present multiplicity of boards and elections. The system is extravagant in time, in men, and in money. A further and more serious evil consequent on the dispersion of functions is this : the number of capable men able and willing to take part in local government is limited. The numerous boards therefore have to be filled up with very indifferent material. A locality which might well furnish a single board of competent men is quite unequal to provide four or five such boards. Besides, the very limited sphere of usefulness which is open to a man who serves in any one of the existing petty boards effectually deters many good men from coming forward. The opponents of reform urge that there is a healthy vitality about English local institutions which more than compensates for all their eccentricities and shortcomings. To this its advocates reply that judicious reform would increase rather than impair that vigour. There was once a golden age of local government in England, when it was both simple and strong. That golden age, say sanguine men, may yet return in some shape. In Saxon times the pressure of the Central Government was but slightly felt. The duties of a freeman to the State were all comprehended in the *trinoda necessitas*.² As regards administrative government, the counties were almost independent. The counties were subdivided into hundreds, and

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these again were subdivided into townships. Each division had its appropriate assembly or court, which made bye-laws, and administered local affairs and justice within its competence. Police was provided for by the system of frankpledge or mutual guarantee. Every freeholder—and freeholder then was practically synonymous with freeman—was entitled to take part in the township assembly. Every township was represented in the court of the hundred and the county. No distinction was drawn between legislative, judicial, and administrative functions. Ἀρχεῖν καὶ δικάζειν was then the right and duty of every freeman. The machinery of local government in Saxon times would of course be as unfitted to the present day as Saxon clothes or Saxon arms; but a return in rural districts to something like the old three-fold division into county, hundred, and township seems highly desirable.¹ Nothing probably would be gained by trying to include the larger towns in the tripartite rural system. They should have their own municipal system. The conditions of town and country in respect

¹ The fatal mistake was made in 1834, when unions were created without any regard to the historic division of the country into counties. Nearly a third of the total number of unions cut county boundaries. *Ce n'est que le premier pas qui coûte.* Since 1834 both population and wealth have advanced by leaps and bounds. To provide for the growing requirements of the nation new local authorities have been created wholesale. Each special need has been met by calling into existence a new special authority to deal with it. Following the evil precedent of the unions, these new authorities have been created without any regard to previously existing divisions or authorities. The burial board knows not the highway board, and neither of them takes cognisance of the vestry, the guardians, or the country. It will be no easy task to make these heterogeneous elements coalesce, and there are of course limits beyond which it would not be desirable to attempt to do so.

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The first of these is the fact that the University of Chicago has been the only one of the great American universities to have a long and continuous history of research in the field of the history of the United States. This is due to the fact that the University has been the home of a number of the most distinguished historians of the country, and it has been the center of a number of the most important historical movements of the country. The second of these is the fact that the University has been the home of a number of the most distinguished historians of the country, and it has been the center of a number of the most important historical movements of the country. The third of these is the fact that the University has been the home of a number of the most distinguished historians of the country, and it has been the center of a number of the most important historical movements of the country.

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to local government are very different. In districts classed as urban by the census authorities the average population is 4061 persons to the square mile, while throughout the rest of the country the average is 158 to the square mile. Towns require much more government than the country, especially in sanitary matters. Masses of human beings, when collected together in a limited space, necessarily create nuisances which individuals are helpless to abate. Towns therefore require a more elaborate machinery than rural districts. The principle is recognised in England, but its application is fitful and irregular in the extreme. The Public Health Acts assign much larger powers to urban than to rural sanitary authorities, and the Municipal Corporation Acts provide a special system for the administration of the favoured towns to which they are extended. In France, as we have seen, where there is often a tendency to prefer symmetry to practical utility, no distinction is recognised between town and country. The largest city and the smallest village are administered on the same lines.

The subject of local taxation and burdens is dealt with in another volume of this series;¹ but for the sake of completeness a few words must be said here on the general aspect of those questions.

Very few people probably realise the extent of the sums annually disbursed by the various local authorities in England, or the alarming rate at which local expenditure and indebtedness is increasing. The ratepayer who grasps the situation regards the feats of elective

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local bodies in spending money and piling up debts with feelings akin to those with which Frankenstein beheld the pranks of the monster of his own creation. But he takes no action in the matter. No one works harder than an Englishman to make money, yet no one submits more passively to having his money taken from him. The scandalous failure of our bankruptcy laws is mainly due to the apathy of creditors in enforcing their rights. This curious national characteristic comes out strongly as regards local affairs. The ordinary ratepayer looks on a rise in his rates in the same way that he looks on an increase in the rainfall. Both are matters to be grumbled at; but in neither case does he inquire into causes, and he considers the one as irremediable as the other. In spite of the prevalent apathy on the subject, the statistics of local finance are well worth a little attention.

In 1870 the sum total of the outlay for the year for local purposes was £29,000,000.¹ In 1880, although prisons had in the meantime been transferred to the Central Government, the expenditure for the year had risen to £50,000,000. In order to meet this outlay £31,000,000 were raised by local taxation, the Treasury contributed rather more than £2,000,000, tolls and dues brought in £6,000,000, and the rest was defrayed out of loans. The expenditure is shown in the Local Government Board Returns under two heads,—namely, non-remunerative expenditure and remunerative expenditure. Under the first head appear the sums ex-

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pended on the relief of the poor and the maintenance of the police force throughout the country. Under the heading of remunerative expenditure, as it is euphemistically called, are included the expenses incurred by highway authorities, sanitary authorities, school boards, drainage boards, and burial boards; also the sums expended on vaccination, and on the registration of births, deaths, and marriages. An examination of the details of the returns shows that nearly £2,000,000 were expended on highways, and nearly £4,000,000 on elementary education. Vaccination cost £86,000; but the main expenditure was incurred by urban sanitary authorities, who spent no less than £16,761,000; while rural sanitary authorities, on the other hand, spent rather less than half a million. Turning now to the details of non-remunerative expenditure, we find that our local tribute to pauperism and crime comes to about £15,500,000. The police administration of the country costs about £7,000,000. The total sum raised by the poor rate is £14,000,000, but by various statutes, expenditure for many purposes wholly unconnected with the relief of the poor has been charged on the poor rate. Still the total spent on poor relief proper is startling. Our navy and fleet, equipped with all the appliances of modern warfare, cost us about £10,000,000 annually. Our noble army of paupers costs us nearly £9,000,000. The mean strength of our force of adult able-bodied paupers is about 105,000—that is to say, it is about the same as that of our army¹ and navy combined. It seems a pity that we cannot have an annual review of our able-bodied paupers. It would be a more imposing spectacle than any military pageant

¹ Soldiers serving abroad are not included in this estimate.

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The first part of the chapter discusses the importance of the environment in the development of the individual. It emphasizes that the environment is not just a passive backdrop but an active participant in the process of development. The text explores how various environmental factors, such as social interactions, cultural norms, and physical surroundings, shape the individual's growth and behavior. It also touches upon the concept of the "ecological system," which views the individual as being nested within multiple layers of environmental influence.

The second part of the chapter delves into the role of the family in development. It examines how family structure, parenting styles, and family dynamics contribute to the child's development. The text discusses the importance of a supportive and nurturing family environment and how it can either hinder or promote the child's growth. It also addresses the challenges families may face and the strategies they can use to overcome them.

The third part of the chapter focuses on the role of the school in development. It explores how the school environment, including the curriculum, teaching methods, and social interactions, influences the child's development. The text discusses the importance of a positive and stimulating school environment and how it can foster the child's learning and growth. It also addresses the challenges schools may face and the strategies they can use to improve their effectiveness.

The fourth part of the chapter discusses the role of the community in development. It examines how the community, including its culture, values, and resources, influences the individual's development. The text discusses the importance of a supportive and inclusive community and how it can provide the individual with the resources and opportunities they need to thrive. It also addresses the challenges the community may face and the strategies it can use to improve its role in development.

The fifth part of the chapter discusses the role of the individual in development. It explores how the individual's own characteristics, such as their personality, abilities, and choices, influence their development. The text discusses the importance of the individual taking responsibility for their own development and how they can use their strengths and resources to overcome challenges and achieve their goals. It also addresses the challenges the individual may face and the strategies they can use to improve their development.

that England has ever seen. If their big battalions could be made to march past the representatives of the ratepayers, some drastic legislation on the subject of able-bodied pauperism would be the probable result. Of the £9,000,000 devoted in 1880 to poor relief, only £250 seems to have been spent on emigration, the one mode of relief which might fairly be classed as remunerative, inasmuch as it permanently removes from the pauper class the person assisted to emigrate.

In 1881 the total of our local debt had reached the enormous sum of £144,000,000. In 1875 it was £92,000,000. An examination of the returns shows that our local indebtedness has been steadily increasing at the rate of about £8,000,000 a year.

Turning from liabilities to assets, we find that the total of rateable property in England is estimated to produce a gross rental of £157,000,000, and to possess a rateable value of £133,000,000. When the capacity of the country to bear local taxation is being considered, it must not be forgotten that £4,000,000 a-year are paid as tithe, and that the land throughout England must be considered as mortgaged to this extent. The clergy do not get the whole of the tithe that is collected. About £1,000,000 is in the hands of lay impropiators; the remaining £3,000,000, however, are devoted to the payment of what has been called our moral police force. The expediency or non-expediency of tithes is a question falling quite outside the province of this series to discuss. All that we are concerned with is the fact that for rating purposes the land cannot be regarded as unencumbered, but must be considered as subject to a first charge in favour of the tithe owner.

that England has ever seen. If their big battalions could be made to march past the representatives of the ratepayers, some drastic legislation on the subject of able-bodied pauperism would be the probable result. Of the £9,000,000 devoted in 1880 to poor relief, only £250 seems to have been spent on emigration, the one mode of relief which might fairly be classed as remunerative, inasmuch as it permanently removes from the pauper class the person assisted to emigrate.

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7. The seventh part of the document discusses the importance of ethics and governance. It emphasizes that ethics and governance are essential for ensuring the integrity and accountability of an organization. The text provides guidelines for ethical behavior, such as being honest, transparent, and fair. It also discusses the importance of establishing a strong governance structure and implementing effective controls.

8. The eighth part of the document discusses the importance of customer service. It emphasizes that excellent customer service is essential for building a loyal customer base and achieving long-term success. The text provides guidelines for providing excellent customer service, such as listening to customer needs, responding promptly, and going above and beyond. It also discusses the importance of measuring and improving customer satisfaction.

9. The ninth part of the document discusses the importance of financial management. It emphasizes that sound financial management is essential for ensuring the financial health and stability of an organization. The text outlines various financial management practices, including budgeting, forecasting, and financial reporting. It also discusses the importance of monitoring and controlling financial performance.

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The extravagant cost of local administration and the alarming increase of local indebtedness are probably due to a variety of causes, among which the following are important. First, there is no really efficient control over local expenditure so long as the money raised is actually expended on the objects for which it was raised. In the second place, the standard of education and intelligence among local authorities generally is not so high as could be wished, and moreover, the classes from whom local authorities are chiefly selected are precisely those who derive most benefit from local expenditure, and have the least object in checking extravagance. Lastly, the complicated nature of our system of local government, with its ever-clashing and intersecting areas and authorities, whose accounts are made up at different dates, prevents the possibility of anything like a local budget. It is impossible to make out what is the total expenditure for any given locality. The ratepayer who essayed the task could only give it up in bewildered disgust. Nevertheless the question how local expenditure is to be controlled is fast assuming for the English citizen the aspect of the sphinx's riddle.

TABLE.

(a.) Dates of Election for different Authorities.

Town Councils—1st November.

Local Boards—First week in April.

Boards of Guardians—7th, 8th, and 9th April.

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Town Councils—Occupiers one vote.

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As occupiers, the same scale.

N.B.—Persons can vote in both
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Abstract

Figure 1. The effect of the number of trials on the number of correct responses.

[illegible]

1. **Identify the main idea or thesis statement.** This is the central point the author is trying to make.

1. The first step is to identify the problem. This involves understanding the current situation and what needs to be improved.

Figure 1. The effect of the number of trials on the number of correct responses. The number of correct responses was significantly higher than the number of incorrect responses for all groups. The number of correct responses was significantly higher than the number of incorrect responses for all groups. The number of correct responses was significantly higher than the number of incorrect responses for all groups.

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Local Board—£15 rating where the population is under 20,000, and £30 rating where the population is over 20,000. Personal property without rating is available, provided the amount be £500 or £1000, according to the population.

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CHAPTER III.

THE PARISH.

The Civil Parish—Different kinds of Parishes—History of the Parish—Decay of Parish Functions—The Vestry—Its Functions—The Overseers—The Ecclesiastical Parish—The Minister—The Churchyard and rights of Burial—Churchwardens and other Lay Officers.

I. *The Civil Parish.*

FOR most purposes of local government the term "parish" means the Poor-Law Parish. The poor-law parish is a district or area for which a separate poor rate is or can be made, or for which a separate overseer is or can be appointed.¹ The area thus designated, says a return by the Local Government Board, "may consist of an entire ancient parish, one or more highway townships, a parochial chapelry, a chapelry, a quarter, a hamlet, or some part of an ancient parish which is not known by any of these designations."

¹ By sec. 18 of the Poor Law Amendment Act, 1866 (29 and 30 Vict. c. 113):—"In all statutes, except there shall be something in the context inconsistent therewith, the word 'parish' shall, among other meanings applicable to it, signify a place for which a separate poor rate is or can be made, or for which a separate overseer is or can be appointed." The careful vagueness of this definition is a good illustration of the confusion which reigns supreme over all local matters in England.

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In 1873 a Select Committee was appointed to inquire into the question of parish boundaries. From their investigations it appears that the parish bears no definite relation to any other administrative area except the union. A parish may be situated partly in one county, partly in another; partly in a county and partly in a municipal borough; partly within the jurisdiction of a local board, and partly without. Again, the lands composing a single parish are by no means always within a ring-fence boundary. They are often separated from the lands of the mother parish by a considerable distance. In Yorkshire, at that time, there were more than seventy divided parishes, and one parish had no less than ten outlying portions intermixed with the lands of other parishes. The total number of divided parishes was over 1300. Three Acts, however, have now been passed—one in 1876, another in 1879, and a third in 1882, enabling the Local Government Board, under certain conditions, to readjust the boundaries of divided parishes, and either merge outlying portions in adjacent parishes or make them into new parishes. Very few orders have as yet been made under the powers given by these Acts. Apart from statutory readjustment, the boundaries of parishes are determined by immemorial custom, and are ascertained and evidenced by perambulations. These perambulations formerly were made annually in Rogation Week, but now it seems they should be made triennially, for the Poor Law Act of 1844¹ authorises the expenses of perambulations incurred by the parish officers to be charged to the poor rate, "provided the perambulations do not occur more than

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once in three years." The expense of setting up and keeping in repair the parish boundary stones may also be charged to the poor rate. Parishes are very unequal both in area and population. There are many parishes with an area of less than 50 acres, and many with an area exceeding 10,000 acres. There are 788 parishes with a population of less than 50 persons, and 6000 parishes with a population under 300. There are cases in Northumberland of parishes containing only five or six persons.¹ On the other hand, there is a considerable number of parishes with a population exceeding 30,000. The township of Toxteth, for instance, contains 107,000 inhabitants. The average population is about 1500, and the greater number of parishes have a population varying between 200 and 1000.² There is no power to consolidate small parishes, but the Poor Law Amendment Act of 1867 enables the Local Government Board, by Provisional Order, to subdivide a large parish on the application of one-tenth in value of the owners and ratepayers therein.³

There are other kinds of parishes besides the poor-law parish, which must be distinguished from it. There is the "Land-Tax Parish," which may be disregarded

¹ *Report on Poor Law Guardians*, 1878, p. 7. Mr. Fry mentioned a parish in which there was only one ratepayer. That man may well say *L'état c'est moi*. He must rate himself. Presumably he is the overseer, the vestry, the chairman of the vestry, and the guardian. When he meets himself in vestry we may surmise that he takes the opinion of the meeting by show of hands. It may be an open question whether he might not constitute himself the burial board and bury himself.

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for purposes of local government.¹ There is the Highway Parish, which may or may not be identical with the poor-law parish. Many hamlets, villages, and tithings which are not separate poor-law parishes, are by custom separate highway parishes. The number of these parishes is not known; but in 1881 the number in respect of which returns were made to the Local Government Board was 14,777.² There remains the Ecclesiastical Parish, which was once identical with the civil or poor-law parish and is often confused with it, though there is now no necessary connection between the two. A hamlet, for instance, may be in one parish for ecclesiastical purposes, such as tithe; while it is in another parish for civil purposes, such as the poor rate. According to the Census Returns of 1871, the number of civil parishes in England at that date was 14,945. The number of ecclesiastical parishes was estimated at about 13,000, there being no returns available from which the exact number could be ascertained. Now that the civil and ecclesiastical divisions of the land have parted company, it seems a pity that the ecclesiastical term "parish" is not confined to the ecclesiastical division. The old word township might then be used exclusively to denote the civil division.

From a historical point of view the parish is the most interesting of our local institutions. Primarily the parish is merely the old township in its ecclesiastical aspect."

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² As to the constitution and functions of the "highway parish" see Chapter IX., on Highway Areas. It is quite impossible to say what constitutes a "parish" for the purposes of the Burial Acts.

³ Stubbs, *Const. Hist.* vol. i. p. 85.

The following table shows the results of the regression analysis for the dependent variable "Number of children in the household" (N = 1,000). The independent variables are "Age of the head of household" and "Gender of the head of household". The table includes the coefficient estimates, standard errors, t-statistics, and p-values for each variable.

Variable	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-statistic	p-value
Age of the head of household	0.05	0.02	2.50	0.01
Gender of the head of household (Male = 1, Female = 0)	-0.10	0.03	-3.33	0.00
Constant	1.50	0.10	15.00	0.00

The regression results indicate that the number of children in the household is positively related to the age of the head of household and negatively related to the gender of the head of household. Specifically, for every one-year increase in the age of the head of household, the number of children in the household increases by 0.05, holding all other variables constant. Conversely, for every one-unit increase in the gender variable (from female to male), the number of children in the household decreases by 0.10, holding all other variables constant.

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We can therefore trace the descent of the modern civil parish, through the ecclesiastical parish, up to the old Saxon township. Some have carried its lineage still higher. "The township," says De Tocqueville, "is the only association which is so perfectly natural that wherever a number of men are collected it seems to constitute itself. If man makes monarchies and establishes republics, this, the first association of mankind, seems constituted by the hand of God Himself." Without going back quite so far as this, it may be safely said that the English parish is the legitimate descendant of the Teutonic mark, and that the English parish, the New England township, the French or Belgian commune, and the village community of Northern India, are but variations of one common type which reproduces itself wherever the Aryan race is found. Whether the Teutonic mark system was ever introduced into England by our Saxon forefathers may be an open question; but the Saxon township owed many of its distinguishing characteristics to the mark system. The township was so called from the tun or hedge which surrounded the group of homesteads. Around the homesteads were the township lands, held chiefly in common, but partly also in the separate ownership of the freemen who dwelt there. The constitution of the township was democratic. Every freeman took part in the business of its gemot or assembly; one and the same assembly made its bye-laws, held the township court, elected its officers, and managed its affairs. Its officers were the gerefa and the tithing-man. The functions of the gerefa were, it seems, judicial. He, too, with four chosen freemen, represented it in the hundred court and in the shire moot. The tithing-man was its peace officer.

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We can therefore trace the descent of the modern civil parish, through the ecclesiastical parish, up to the old Saxon township. Some have carried its lineage still higher. "The township," says De Tocqueville, "is the only association which is so perfectly natural that wherever a number of men are collected it seems to constitute itself. If man makes monarchies and establishes republics, this, the first association of mankind, seems constituted by the hand of God Himself." Without going back quite so far as this, it may be safely said that the English parish is the legitimate descendant of the Teutonic mark, and that the English parish, the New England township, the French or Belgian commune, and the village community of Northern India, are but variations of one common type which reproduces itself wherever the Aryan race is found. Whether the Teutonic mark system was ever introduced into England by our Saxon forefathers may be an open question; but the Saxon township owed many of its distinguishing characteristics to the mark system. The township was so called from the tun or hedge which surrounded the group of homesteads. Around the homesteads were the township lands, held chiefly in common, but partly also in the separate ownership of the freemen who dwelt there. The constitution of the township was democratic. Every freeman took part in the business of its gemot or assembly; one and the same assembly made its bye-laws, held the township court, elected its officers, and managed its affairs. Its officers were the gerefa and the tithing-man. The functions of the gerefa were, it seems, judicial. He, too, with four chosen freemen, represented it in the hundred court and in the shire moot. The tithing-man was its peace officer.

The ecclesiastical organisation of England is of later date than its civil organisation, and the parish therefore is a more modern institution than the township. The parish, says Professor Stubbs, was the township or cluster of townships to which a single priest ministered, and to whom its tithes and ecclesiastical dues were paid.¹ As many townships were too small to require or support a separate church and priest, many parishes contained several townships. Where the boundaries of parishes and the townships they represent or contain do not coincide, the divergence will for the most part be found to be due to recent legislation. The division of the kingdom into parishes seems not to have been completed till the reign of Edward III. In the meantime, however, a great change had passed over the civil organisation of the township. England had been feudalised, so had the township. Its old organisation had disappeared and reappeared in the dual form of the vestry and the manor courts, representing, it has been said, both Church and State. The exact steps by which the republican township became merged for most purposes in the more or less constitutional monarchy of the manor are not easy to trace, but the substantial identity of the two is clear. "The manor," says Professor Stubbs, "was nothing more nor less than the ancient township, held by a lord who possessed certain judicial rights, varying according to the form of the grant by which he was infeoffed. Every manor had a court baron, the ancient gemot of the township, in which bye-laws were made and other local

¹ *Const. Hist.* vol. i. pp. 85, 227. "If a place has not a church, churchwardens, and sacramentalia, it is not properly a parish."—*Comyn's Digest*, Tit. Parish.

the information science community. The first of these is the need for a more integrated approach to the study of information science, one that takes into account the social, cultural, and historical context of information science.

The second of these is the need for a more interdisciplinary approach to the study of information science, one that draws on the methods and theories of other disciplines such as sociology, psychology, and anthropology.

The third of these is the need for a more collaborative approach to the study of information science, one that involves the participation of researchers from different disciplines and institutions.

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business transacted. Certain manors had also a court leet, which exercised a criminal jurisdiction."¹ In such case the suitors who attended were excused from going to the court leet of the hundred. Manors and manorial courts have now long ceased to play any part in local government, and for the present purpose their fortunes need be no further followed. As the jurisdiction of the manor was defined by charter, all matters arising outside it fell to the management of the vestry, which primarily was the gemot or assembly of the township for ecclesiastical matters only, but which subsequently became the assembly of the inhabitants for any purpose, lay or ecclesiastical, outside the manorial jurisdiction. As vestries began to exercise civil functions, we find that for civil purposes the terms parish, town, township, tithing, and vill come to be used as synonymous, though for ecclesiastical purposes the term parish is always kept to. The modern parish may perhaps be said to date from the famous statute of Elizabeth (43 Eliz. c. 1) which established the poor law on its present basis, and directed overseers of the poor to be chosen for each parish, making the churchwardens *ex officio* overseers. Since that time, whenever the Legislature has created fresh functions for the township, it has preferred the ecclesiastical to the feudal organisation, and has bestowed them on the parish and not on the manor. Hence it is the clergyman, and not the lord of the manor, who of right presides over the parish assembly or vestry. It remains for us to show how it has come about that the ecclesiastical parish and the civil parish which were once identical, are now no longer so. There are now about 15,000 civil and 13,000

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ecclesiastical parishes. Out of the 15,000 civil parishes, there were in 1871 not more than 10,000 whose boundaries coincided with the ecclesiastical parishes of the same name. This result has been brought about by two sets of causes—one lay, the other ecclesiastical. Under the powers given by the numerous Church Building Acts, populous parishes have, for ecclesiastical purposes, been subdivided into distinct parishes. This division has not affected the parish in its civil aspect. The lay causes have been more complicated. In the first place, outlying townships of large parishes seem long ago to have acquired by custom the right of appointing separate overseers, and of being separately rated to the poor rate. By an Act of 1819 this customary separation from the mother parish was confirmed in the case of all places which had enjoyed the right for sixty years, but the fresh creation of parishes by custom was forbidden. Secondly, the same end was in certain cases arrived at by direct legislation. An Act of 1662, after reciting the largeness of the parishes in some northern counties, provides that in every township or village in those counties there shall be separate overseers. Again, by custom there were certain places, originally perhaps marsh or forest lands, which were extra-parochial. By virtue of two Acts passed in 1857 and 1868, these extra-parochial places have been merged in the adjoining parishes. The meshes of the poor-law net now cover the whole of England, and no rateable person, however slippery, can elude them. Another series of statutes has provided for the merging of detached parts of parishes in parishes with which they are contiguous. As the result of these various causes, about one-third of the

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civil parishes have no connection with ecclesiastical parishes.

As an administrative unit, the parish now is not of much importance. Its varying size and primitive organisation render it unfit for efficient administration; and one by one its governing functions have been taken from it and transferred to others. In 1834 poor-law administration was taken out of the hands of the vestry and transferred to the guardians. The establishment of the county police in 1856 superseded the necessity for the old parish constables, and by an Act of 1872 the office of parish constable is permissively abolished.¹ By the Public Health Act of 1872 the sanitary functions of the vestry in rural districts were transferred to the guardians as the rural sanitary authority. In urban districts vestries had for some years ceased to have sanitary powers. The main importance of the parish at the present day is as the unit for taxation and electoral purposes. All rates included in the poor rate are collected parochially, and the lists of voters for parliamentary and municipal elections are also made out parochially.

The essential organisation of the parish consists of the Vestry and Overseers. The vestry, as we have seen, was primarily the assembly of the township for ecclesiastical matters, and derived its name from the old place of meeting.² If we go back some 300 years we shall

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Abstract

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1. The first step is to identify the problem or question that needs to be answered. This involves understanding the context and the specific requirements of the task.

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Table 1

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1. **Identify the main components of the system.**
 2. **Define the objectives and scope of the study.**
 3. **Develop a methodology for data collection and analysis.**
 4. **Collect and analyze data.**
 5. **Draw conclusions and discuss the results.**
 6. **Formulate recommendations for future research.**

Abstract

1. The first step is to identify the problem or question that needs to be answered. This involves understanding the context and the specific requirements of the task.



find that every Englishman was not only a churchman, but was bound to attend his parish church. All parish notices were given out in church, and after service it was convenient and natural for the parishioners to go to the vestry attached to the church to discuss and settle parish matters. Parish notices may now be no longer given out in church, though they are directed to be posted on the doors of churches and chapels. Provision is also made that in the case of parishes containing more than 2000 inhabitants, the vestry may hire or build a vestry hall, so as to avoid the necessity of holding large or stormy meetings in the immediate vicinity of the church.

Vestries are either (*a*) Common or (*b*) Select. The usual definition of a common vestry is "the ratepayers of the parish in vestry assembled." Every ratepayer, whether resident or non-resident, is entitled to vote. Three days' notice of a vestry meeting must in all cases be given. The minister of the parish, if present, is entitled to take the chair. If he is not present, or perhaps in all cases where the parish is not also an ecclesiastical parish, the meeting may elect its chairman. Minutes of the meeting must be taken, which the chairman must sign. The opinion of the meeting is taken by show of hands, but any one present is entitled to demand a poll. If a poll be taken the system of voting is plural, the lection of taxes and the parish as an ecclesiastical unity), the churchwardens, the way-wardens, the assessors, and overseers of the poor. In the courts of the manor are transacted the other remaining portions of the old township jurisdiction, the election of by-law men, ale-tasters, and other officers of a character of which nine-tenths of Englishmen know nothing. The court baron and customary court continues in its admission of tenants and witnessing of surrenders the ancient business of the mark moot."—Stubbs's *Const. Hist.* vol. i. p. 91.

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voters having from one to six votes according to rating. A rating of £50 gives one vote ; every additional £25 gives one extra vote, until the total of six votes is reached. A woman who pays rates may vote, and a corporation may vote by its secretary or other agent.

In a few parishes there are select vestries by custom. The custom then determines the number of the vestrymen and their mode of election, which is usually by co-optation. Such vestries have doubtless arisen through the apathy of the majority of the inhabitants as to their parochial rights.

Statutory select vestries were created by an Act of 1831, commonly known as Hobhouse's Act.¹ The Act is permissive and can only be adopted by parishes having more than 800 ratepaying inhabitants. It must be adopted after due notice to the parishioners by a two-thirds vote. The select vestry under the Act is elected by the ratepayers. At this election a ratepayer has only one vote. The number of select vestrymen is fixed at twelve for every 1000 ratepayers, but the total number must not exceed 120. The clergyman of the parish and the churchwardens are *ex officio* members. One-third of the members of the select vestry retire annually. The Act further provides for the publication of the accounts of parish charities, and the election of auditors to audit the accounts. As the Act has been repealed as regards the Metropolis, where it had been largely adopted, it is believed that there are not now many parishes governed under it.

The functions of the vestry consist mainly in managing the parish property and charities, if there be any, and in adopting and working certain permissive Acts

¹ 1 & 2 Will. IV. c. 60.

1. The first step is to identify the problem or question that needs to be addressed. This involves understanding the context and the specific requirements of the task.

2. Next, it is important to gather relevant information and data. This can be done through research, consultation with experts, or by analyzing existing resources.

3. Once the information is gathered, the next step is to develop a plan or strategy. This involves breaking down the problem into smaller, manageable parts and determining the best approach to solve each part.

4. The fourth step is to implement the plan. This involves putting the strategy into action and monitoring progress as you go.

5. Finally, it is important to evaluate the results and make adjustments as needed. This involves reflecting on what worked well and what didn't, and using that information to improve future performance.

The following table shows the results of the regression analysis for the dependent variable "Number of children in the household" (N = 1,000). The table is organized into three columns: "Variable", "Coefficient", and "Standard Error". The variables are categorized into "Demographics", "Economics", and "Social Factors". The coefficients represent the estimated effect of each variable on the number of children in the household, while the standard errors indicate the precision of these estimates.

Variable	Coefficient	Standard Error
Age of mother at birth	-0.05	0.01
Age of mother at first birth	-0.10	0.02
Age of mother at second birth	-0.15	0.03
Age of mother at third birth	-0.20	0.04
Age of mother at fourth birth	-0.25	0.05
Age of mother at fifth birth	-0.30	0.06
Age of mother at sixth birth	-0.35	0.07
Age of mother at seventh birth	-0.40	0.08
Age of mother at eighth birth	-0.45	0.09
Age of mother at ninth birth	-0.50	0.10
Age of mother at tenth birth	-0.55	0.11
Age of mother at eleventh birth	-0.60	0.12
Age of mother at twelfth birth	-0.65	0.13
Age of mother at thirteenth birth	-0.70	0.14
Age of mother at fourteenth birth	-0.75	0.15
Age of mother at fifteenth birth	-0.80	0.16
Age of mother at sixteenth birth	-0.85	0.17
Age of mother at seventeenth birth	-0.90	0.18
Age of mother at eighteenth birth	-0.95	0.19
Age of mother at nineteenth birth	-1.00	0.20
Age of mother at twentieth birth	-1.05	0.21
Age of mother at twenty-first birth	-1.10	0.22
Age of mother at twenty-second birth	-1.15	0.23
Age of mother at twenty-third birth	-1.20	0.24
Age of mother at twenty-fourth birth	-1.25	0.25
Age of mother at twenty-fifth birth	-1.30	0.26
Age of mother at twenty-sixth birth	-1.35	0.27
Age of mother at twenty-seventh birth	-1.40	0.28
Age of mother at twenty-eighth birth	-1.45	0.29
Age of mother at twenty-ninth birth	-1.50	0.30
Age of mother at thirtieth birth	-1.55	0.31
Age of mother at thirty-first birth	-1.60	0.32
Age of mother at thirty-second birth	-1.65	0.33
Age of mother at thirty-third birth	-1.70	0.34
Age of mother at thirty-fourth birth	-1.75	0.35
Age of mother at thirty-fifth birth	-1.80	0.36
Age of mother at thirty-sixth birth	-1.85	0.37
Age of mother at thirty-seventh birth	-1.90	0.38
Age of mother at thirty-eighth birth	-1.95	0.39
Age of mother at thirty-ninth birth	-2.00	0.40
Age of mother at fortieth birth	-2.05	0.41
Age of mother at forty-first birth	-2.10	0.42
Age of mother at forty-second birth	-2.15	0.43
Age of mother at forty-third birth	-2.20	0.44
Age of mother at forty-fourth birth	-2.25	0.45
Age of mother at forty-fifth birth	-2.30	0.46
Age of mother at forty-sixth birth	-2.35	0.47
Age of mother at forty-seventh birth	-2.40	0.48
Age of mother at forty-eighth birth	-2.45	0.49
Age of mother at forty-ninth birth	-2.50	0.50
Age of mother at fiftieth birth	-2.55	0.51
Age of mother at fifty-first birth	-2.60	0.52
Age of mother at fifty-second birth	-2.65	0.53
Age of mother at fifty-third birth	-2.70	0.54
Age of mother at fifty-fourth birth	-2.75	0.55
Age of mother at fifty-fifth birth	-2.80	0.56
Age of mother at fifty-sixth birth	-2.85	0.57
Age of mother at fifty-seventh birth	-2.90	0.58
Age of mother at fifty-eighth birth	-2.95	0.59
Age of mother at fifty-ninth birth	-3.00	0.60
Age of mother at sixtieth birth	-3.05	0.61
Age of mother at sixty-first birth	-3.10	0.62
Age of mother at sixty-second birth	-3.15	0.63
Age of mother at sixty-third birth	-3.20	0.64
Age of mother at sixty-fourth birth	-3.25	0.65
Age of mother at sixty-fifth birth	-3.30	0.66
Age of mother at sixty-sixth birth	-3.35	0.67
Age of mother at sixty-seventh birth	-3.40	0.68
Age of mother at sixty-eighth birth	-3.45	0.69
Age of mother at sixty-ninth birth	-3.50	0.70
Age of mother at seventieth birth	-3.55	0.71
Age of mother at seventy-first birth	-3.60	0.72
Age of mother at seventy-second birth	-3.65	0.73
Age of mother at seventy-third birth	-3.70	0.74
Age of mother at seventy-fourth birth	-3.75	0.75
Age of mother at seventy-fifth birth	-3.80	0.76
Age of mother at seventy-sixth birth	-3.85	0.77
Age of mother at seventy-seventh birth	-3.90	0.78
Age of mother at seventy-eighth birth	-3.95	0.79
Age of mother at seventy-ninth birth	-4.00	0.80
Age of mother at eightieth birth	-4.05	0.81
Age of mother at eighty-first birth	-4.10	0.82
Age of mother at eighty-second birth	-4.15	0.83
Age of mother at eighty-third birth	-4.20	0.84
Age of mother at eighty-fourth birth	-4.25	0.85
Age of mother at eighty-fifth birth	-4.30	0.86
Age of mother at eighty-sixth birth	-4.35	0.87
Age of mother at eighty-seventh birth	-4.40	0.88
Age of mother at eighty-eighth birth	-4.45	0.89
Age of mother at eighty-ninth birth	-4.50	0.90
Age of mother at ninetieth birth	-4.55	0.91
Age of mother at one hundredth birth	-4.60	0.92
Age of mother at one hundred and first birth	-4.65	0.93
Age of mother at one hundred and second birth	-4.70	0.94
Age of mother at one hundred and third birth	-4.75	0.95
Age of mother at one hundred and fourth birth	-4.80	0.96
Age of mother at one hundred and fifth birth	-4.85	0.97
Age of mother at one hundred and sixth birth</		

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A vestry, for instance, may, under certain restrictions, adopt and put in force the provisions of the Free Libraries Act. It may also provide for the lighting a rural parish by adopting the provisions of the Lighting and Watching Act, 1833. It may decide that a new burial ground is required, and in that case appoint the burial board. As we have seen, however, most of its regular functions have been taken from it.

In large parishes there is power to appoint a salaried vestry clerk, who acts as secretary to the vestry and assists the overseers in the performance of their duties.

The officers of the civil parish are "the overseers of the poor." Where a civil parish is also an ecclesiastical parish the churchwardens are *ex officio* overseers. There are also in every parish nominated overseers. The Act of Elizabeth directed that "four, three, or two substantial householders" should be nominated in every parish as overseers. Subsequent enactments enable a single overseer to be appointed. The overseers are nominated annually by the justices, and the appointment must be made on the 25th of March, or within fourteen days afterwards. Service in the office is compulsory, subject to certain exemptions and disqualifications. A person, however, who is appointed against his will may appeal to the Quarter Sessions. The overseers are unpaid. They have no power to appoint or pay a deputy; but the vestry may elect one or more "discreet persons" to be assistant overseers, and to perform all or any of the duties of the overseers. The persons so elected are then duly appointed under the seal of two justices. The salary of the assistant overseers is paid out of the poor rate. They are required to find security. On the

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[illegible]

1. The first step is to identify the problem or question that needs to be answered. This involves understanding the context and the specific requirements of the task.

1. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 2000; 283: 2689-2695.

Abstract

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Abstract The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of a 12-week training program on the physical fitness of 10-year-old children. The study was conducted in a primary school in the city of Ankara, Turkey. The study group consisted of 20 children (10 boys and 10 girls) who were randomly selected from the 10-year-old children in the school. The children were divided into two groups: a control group and an experimental group. The control group did not participate in any physical activity during the 12-week period, while the experimental group participated in a 12-week training program. The physical fitness of the children was measured at the beginning and at the end of the 12-week period. The results of the study showed that the experimental group had significantly higher levels of physical fitness than the control group at the end of the 12-week period. The results also showed that the 12-week training program had a positive effect on the physical fitness of 10-year-old children.

A vestry, for instance, may, under certain restrictions, adopt and put in force the provisions of the Free Libraries Act. It may also provide for the lighting a rural parish by adopting the provisions of the Lighting and Watching Act, 1833. It may decide that a new burial ground is required, and in that case appoint the burial board. As we have seen, however, most of its regular functions have been taken from it.

In large parishes there is power to appoint a salaried vestry clerk, who acts as secretary to the vestry and assists the overseers in the performance of their duties.

The officers of the civil parish are "the overseers of the poor." Where a civil parish is also an ecclesiastical parish the churchwardens are *ex officio* overseers. There are also in every parish nominated overseers. The Act of Elizabeth directed that "four, three, or two substantial householders" should be nominated in every parish as overseers. Subsequent enactments enable a single overseer to be appointed. The overseers are nominated annually by the justices, and the appointment must be made on the 25th of March, or within fourteen days afterwards. Service in the office is compulsory, subject to certain exemptions and disqualifications. A person, however, who is appointed against his will may appeal to the Quarter Sessions. The overseers are unpaid. They have no power to appoint or pay a deputy; but the vestry may elect one or more "discreet persons" to be assistant overseers, and to perform all or any of the duties of the overseers. The persons so elected are then duly appointed under the seal of two justices. The salary of the assistant overseers is paid out of the poor rate. They are required to find security. On the

application of the guardians a paid collector may also be appointed for any parish in the union.

The duties of the overseers in respect to poor relief have been transferred to the guardians, but the overseers still have power in cases of immediate urgency to order relief to be given. It is the duty of the overseers to prepare the jury list, and to make out and publish various lists of voters for parliamentary and municipal elections. They also publish the list of claims and objections, and are bound to attend with their books at the revision courts.

Their main function, however, is the making and levying of the poor rate. "The poor rate," says Mr. R. S. Wright, "is levied by an uniform assessment or poundage on the net rateable value of all the lands, houses, and mines in the parish. The valuation list is settled by the Union Committee, and the overseers, when proceeding to make a poor rate, copy the valuation list or the former poor rate, with amendments, adding to it a statement of the number of shillings or pence in the pound which will produce the required sum, and a column showing the amount to be paid by each occupier, and another column for arrears and sums excused. The document so filled up is properly called an 'assessment.' A declaration of its correctness is signed by the overseers, and it is submitted to justices for their allowance, which cannot be withheld if the rate is in proper form. When allowed it becomes a 'rate.' It must be published, and inspection of it must be permitted to ratepayers and certain authorities. The amount due from any person ought to be demanded in writing." There are some complicated provisions under which the owners of

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small tenements may compound and pay the rates instead of the occupiers. The most important provisions on the subject are contained in an Act of 1869, under which owners of tenements rated at £8 or under may, by agreement with the vestry, compound at a reduction of 25 per cent, or may be compelled by the vestry to compound at a reduction which may amount to 30 per cent.

It must be remembered that many expenses not connected with the relief of the poor are by statute directed to be discharged out of the poor rate, and that some other rates may be collected with, and as if they formed part of, the poor rate. The borough rate, for instance, may be so collected.

II. *The Ecclesiastical Parish.*

Since the abolition of compulsory church rates by the Act of 1868, the Ecclesiastical Parish has ceased to be of much practical importance for purposes of local government. It is almost entirely a permissive institution. Still it once played a great part in English local affairs, and it has but recently left the scene, so that a short description of it may not be out of place. Besides, though an English citizen owes but few duties as an ecclesiastical parishioner, he has some important general rights in that capacity which the law will give effect to. In the theory of English law every Englishman is a member of the Church of England. The privilege of dissent is conferred on Englishmen by a long series of statutes, each dealing with a particular point and removing some special grievance; but by the exercise of his privilege of dissent an English citizen does not forfeit his legal

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rights as a member of the National Church; he is only relieved from certain corresponding and irksome duties which were formerly imposed upon him. It must not be forgotten that dissenter and churchman alike pay tithes, both ordinary and extraordinary. The affairs of the ecclesiastical parish are regulated by the vestry, which is, properly speaking, an assembly of the minister, churchwardens, and parishioners. It was, and perhaps still is, the duty of the vestry to make church rates, in order to provide the necessary funds for the repair of the church and churchyard, and for keeping up the fittings and ornaments of the church. An Act of 1868¹ provides that the payment of church rates (except where they had previously been mortgaged) shall no longer be enforced by any legal process. But the Act distinctly recognises their validity, for it provides that bodies-corporate and trustees may pay church rates, and that the sums so paid shall be allowed them in their accounts. It further declares that no person who has made default in payment of a church rate shall be entitled to vote in respect of the expenditure of any monies arising therefrom. Church rates therefore form an apt illustration of what lawyers designate a duty of imperfect obligation—that is to say, a duty recognised as such, but enforced by no sanction. The minister is the clerical, and the churchwardens are the civil officers of the ecclesiastical parish. The minister, whether he be rector, vicar, or incumbent, constitutes what is called in law a corporation-sole—that is to say, the law, in regulating his rights and obligations regards the office and not

¹ 31 & 32 Vict. c. 109. By section 3 church rates which have been already pledged are exempted from the operation of the Act.

The first of these is the fact that the majority of the cases of the disease are now being reported from the tropics and sub-tropics. This is due to the fact that the disease is now being introduced into these regions by the importation of infected material from the West Indies and the East Indies. The second fact is that the disease is now being reported from a much wider area than it was formerly. It is now being reported from all parts of the world, and it is now being reported from all classes of the community.

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¹ 43 & 44 Vict. c. 41.

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the research and the objectives of the study. It highlights the need for a comprehensive understanding of the research topic and the role of the researcher in this process. The second part of the paper presents the methodology used in the study, including the data collection methods and the analysis techniques. The third part of the paper discusses the results of the study and the conclusions drawn from the findings. The final part of the paper provides a summary of the key points and offers suggestions for future research.

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The main lay officers of the ecclesiastical parish are the churchwardens. They are usually two in number, and are elected annually during the first week after Easter. If the minister and parishioners do not agree on the persons to be chosen, the minister nominates one, and the vestry selects the other. The bishop of the diocese is said to have a right of veto if an obviously unfit person be elected to the office. Any ratepaying householder is eligible, and, as is the case with most local offices in England, service is compulsory. Peers and members of Parliament are by common law exempted from the duty of serving as churchwardens, and a similar

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¹ 1 Will. and Mary c. 18.

² 23 & 24 Vict. c. 51, sec. 4; 40 & 41 Vict. c. 66.

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CHAPTER IV.

THE UNION.

The Union—History of Unions—Central Control—The Guardians
—Their Election—Their Duties.

FOR poor law purposes primarily, but incidentally for other purposes also, England is divided into unions. The Union may be defined as the area which is under the jurisdiction of a Board of Guardians. For the most part it consists, as its name implies, of an aggregation of poor-law parishes; but the constitution of a union may be conferred on a single parish if the population warrant it. There are 649 unions, of which 25 are single parishes, and the rest are aggregations of parishes.¹ The unions are very unequal in size and population, and often very irregular in form. The boundaries of the union never intersect those of the poor-law parish; but they are laid down without reference to any other area of local government. Out of the 649 unions,² 181 cut county bound-

¹ It is believed that there are still three unions which are old incorporated hundreds. That at least was the number in 1873.

² Query as to the number of unions. In 1877 the number was 647. Since then two new unions have been created, but the Local Taxation Returns of 1882 only show the number at 627. Perhaps some unions have recently been dissolved.

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1. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 2000; 283: 2639-2645.

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the
 Journal of Management Education in the field of management
 education. It highlights the journal's role in providing
 a platform for the dissemination of research findings and
 the advancement of the discipline. The second part of the
 paper focuses on the journal's commitment to diversity and
 inclusion, emphasizing the importance of representing a
 wide range of perspectives and experiences in the
 management education field. The third part of the paper
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 research findings in the classroom, highlighting the
 importance of evidence-based practice in management
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 3. **Methodology**
 4. **Results**
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aries. As examples of inequality in size:—Welwyn Union in Hertfordshire contains 4 parishes, and has 5 guardians. In Morpeth Union there are 72 parishes and 75 guardians. Lincoln Union has 104 guardians. Comparing purely rural unions:—in 1871 Presteign Union had a population of 4000 and an area of 40 square miles, while Tavistock Union had a population of 32,000 and an area of 250 square miles.

Our present poor-law system dates from 1601. Our present mode of administering it dates from 1834, when the management of poor relief was taken out of the hands of the vestries, and transferred to the guardians. The history and working of the poor laws is the subject of another volume of this series,¹ so that all that will be attempted here is a brief description of our local poor-law machinery.

As early as 1662 certain parishes began to be united for poor-law purposes by special Acts, and by a permissive statute passed in 1782, commonly known as Gilbert's Act, parishes were allowed to combine for purposes of indoor relief. But the present scheme of organisation is the creation of the Poor Law Amendment Act, 1834. Parish management and the policy of the bastardy laws had completely demoralised the rural poor. One of the first works of the Reformed Parliament was the entire remodelling of the poor-law administration. A central body of commissioners, with very large powers, was constituted. The Commission was entrusted, among other matters, with the duty of grouping parishes into unions under the local administration of Boards of Guardians. A few years later the Commission was made a permanent

¹ *The Poor Law*, by Rev. T. W. Fowle.

[illegible]

1. The first step is to identify the problem or question that needs to be answered. This involves understanding the context and the specific requirements of the task.

2. The second step is to gather relevant information and data. This can involve research, consultation with experts, or collecting data from various sources.

3. The third step is to analyze the information and data collected. This involves identifying patterns, trends, and relationships that can help in understanding the problem.

4. The fourth step is to develop a solution or answer. This involves applying the knowledge and skills gained from the previous steps to create a plan or strategy that addresses the problem.

5. The fifth step is to implement the solution and evaluate the results. This involves putting the plan into action and monitoring the progress to ensure that the problem is solved effectively.

The following table shows the results of the regression analysis for the dependent variable "Number of children in the household" (N = 1,000). The independent variables are "Age of the head of household" and "Gender of the head of household". The table includes the coefficient estimates, standard errors, t-statistics, and p-values for each variable.

Variable	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-statistic	p-value
Age of the head of household	0.05	0.02	2.50	0.01
Gender of the head of household (Male = 1, Female = 0)	-0.10	0.03	-3.00	0.00
Constant	1.50	0.10	15.00	0.00

The regression results indicate that the number of children in the household is positively related to the age of the head of household and negatively related to the gender of the head of household. Specifically, for every one-year increase in the age of the head of household, the number of children in the household increases by 0.05, holding all other variables constant. Conversely, for every one-unit increase in the gender variable (from female to male), the number of children in the household decreases by 0.10, holding all other variables constant.

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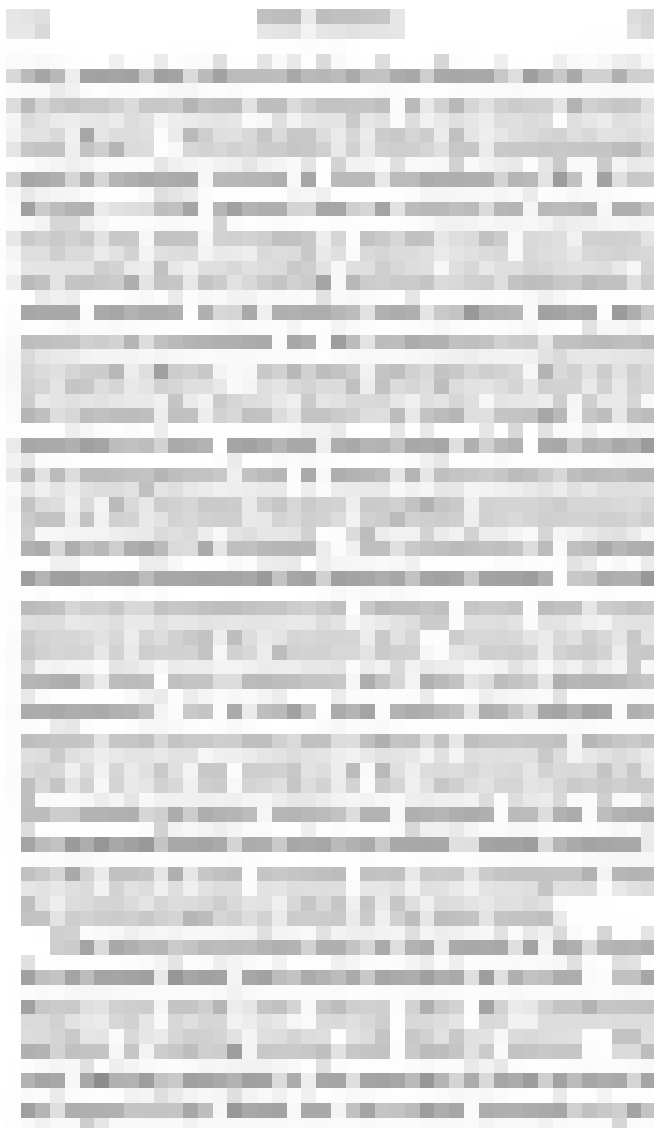
¹ *The Poor Law*, by Rev. T. W. Fowle.

body, under the title of the Poor Law Board; and in 1871 the Poor Law Board was merged in the Local Government Board. The principle on which the commissioners acted in creating unions is thus described by Mr. R. S. Wright:—"The general idea on which the union was formed was that of taking a market town as a centre, and uniting the surrounding parishes, the inhabitants of which resorted to its market, such a centre being supposed to be convenient for the attendance of guardians and parish officers. A limiting principle was, that in the first instance the Union should be small enough for the guardians to have personal knowledge of all the details of its management; and it seems to have been intended that, as the business became simplified and understood, the area might be enlarged. The situations of existing workhouses determined the limits of some unions. Various other local circumstances and feelings must have been allowed to modify the general plan. Unions under the former Acts were respected, and have only gradually disappeared." It is clear that under this scheme no respect could have been paid either to municipal boundaries or to the old division of the land into hundreds. For certain purposes unions are grouped by the Local Government Board into what are called "union counties," but the area of such counties does not correspond with the county properly so called of the same name.

The union is as potters clay in the hands of the Local Government Board, and can be moulded at its will. The Board may create new unions, alter the constituent parishes of existing unions, and dissolve unions. The only limiting principle to the exercise of these powers is the regard of the Board for the vested interests of par-

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ticular parishes. The transfer of a parish from one union to another may obviously alter very considerably the proportion of expenses which it may be called on to contribute. Though the pauper is always with us, he is not evenly distributed over the face of the country. By an Act of 1879 the Local Government Board may, with the consent of the guardians, combine unions for any purpose or purposes connected with the administration of the poor law. No union officer can be appointed, except in the case of menial servants, without the sanction of the Local Government Board, and the officers when appointed may be removed by the Board without consulting the guardians. The Board, too, audits all union accounts. In the case of unions central control is very complete. The wires, therefore, can all be pulled from London. Whether the poor laws should be administered uniformly throughout the country, or whether local authorities should be allowed to impress their own individuality on their administration, is a wide question which need not be discussed here. One point, however, seems clear. The local authority ought to have the power of dismissing its own officers. Under the present system it is very difficult to get rid of a merely incompetent or unsuitable officer. A man may be thoroughly unfit for his post—a very square peg in a very round hole—yet it may be almost impossible to formulate any complaint against him which would enable the central authority to remove him. The local body ought to be able to enforce a separation on the ground of “incompatibility of temper” without resort to any higher authority.

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Metropolis, the guardians consist of two classes, namely, elective guardians and *ex officio* guardians.¹ The justices of the peace—resident within the area of the union—are the *ex officio* guardians. It is said that the justices as a body very seldom attend the board meetings, though the chairman of the board is not unfrequently an *ex officio* guardian. The number of elective guardians in a union is determined by the Local Government Board, subject to the limitation that there must be at least one guardian for every constituent parish. For elective purposes a parish with a population of less than 300 may be united by order of the Board to the adjoining parish. To give an illustration—A parish with a population of 50 might be united with a parish containing a population of 1000, and only two guardians might be allocated to the amalgamated areas. This, of course, would be a practical merger of the smaller in the larger parish. The property qualification of the elective guardians is fixed by the Local Government Board. There is, however, this restriction: the qualification may not be fixed higher than a rental of £40 a year. For the most part guardians hold office for one year. If, however, the majority of ratepayers in a parish or union pass a resolution to the effect that the tenure of office should be made longer, the Local Government Board may alter the tenure. Under this power the Board have fixed the tenure of guardians in the Nottingham and Leeds Unions at three years instead of one. The ordinary annual elections are held in April. The clerk to the

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Owners must claim and be registered in order to be entitled to vote as such. The rate-books of course show the occupiers who are entitled. A non-resident owner may appoint a proxy to vote for him. Any person entitled to vote may nominate himself, or any other person with the requisite qualification, for the office of guardian. A person nominated as a guardian may decline the honour. In this respect the office differs from many local offices in England, where, as we have seen, service is obligatory. When the number of persons nominated for any parish or ward exceeds the number of guardians to be elected, the provisions for a contested election come into play. The contest is conducted by means of voting-papers, which are delivered at the house of each voter or proxy. The papers are directed to be left at the houses of the voters to be filled up on the 7th of April. They must be collected on the 8th—that is to say, the next day—and on the 9th, or as

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¹ Poor Law Guardians, 1878, House of Commons.

soon as may be afterwards, the returning-officer declares the result of the poll. In some respects this system of voting is more convenient than the ballot; it is also cheaper. Certainly, too, more persons will vote if the election comes to them instead of their being obliged to go to the election. The objection urged against the system is the ease with which voting papers can be tampered with. The Select Committee of 1878¹ reported that "it was shown that the abuses and inconvenience of the voting paper system, as at present carried on, were very grave; that under it intimidation, abstraction, tampering with and forgery of voting papers, were practised; that frequently voters did not receive their papers at all, and that in other cases they were invalidated for trifling technical reasons." The chief cause of the malpractices appears to be that the men are away from home when the papers are left, and that their wives are induced to fill them up in their husbands' names, without their authority. When any dispute arises as to the election of a guardian, it is the province of the Local Government Board to decide the matter. Sometimes this is done by correspondence, but when the nature of the case requires it, a local inquiry may be ordered. In towns it is said the elections are chiefly contested on political grounds, while in the country districts they turn on personal considerations.

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¹ Poor Law Guardians, 1878, House of Commons.

the administration of relief, and supervise the management of the workhouses and pauper schools. On two questions the guardians have to exercise an important discretion. First, they have to decide in any particular case whether outdoor relief should be given or the workhouse test applied. As regards this question the poor law is very unequally administered in different unions. In some the policy of the Act of 1834 is rigorously carried out—perhaps too rigorously. In others the Local Government Board complains, “The old abuse of relief in aid of wages must largely prevail in some form or other.”¹ Secondly, when outdoor relief has to be given, the guardians must decide whether it shall be given in money or in kind. The latter mode of relief has many advantages. “It has been a frequent source of complaint,” say the Local Government Board,² “that of relief in money only a small portion reached the wives and other members of the family for whose sustenance it was given; and that in the rural districts the greater portion was spent in the beer shops, and in the towns was expended in the gin shops. Relief in kind we found less liable to misapplication. If, instead of giving to a pauper a weekly allowance in money, an allowance be given in food or other necessities of the same value, he can only obtain a reduced amount of his wonted description of indulgence by the misappropriation of the relief in kind. . . . In the year 1881 the relief to out-paupers in money was £2,297,000, but in kind it only amounted to £325,000; that is to say, for £7 given in the objectionable shape of money, only £1 is now administered

¹ *Report of 1881*, p. xiii.

² *Report of 1882*, p. xiii.

Date	Description	Amount
1890	To Balance	100.00
1891	By Cash	50.00
1892	By Cash	25.00
1893	By Cash	15.00
1894	By Cash	10.00
1895	By Cash	5.00
1896	By Cash	5.00
1897	By Cash	5.00
1898	By Cash	5.00
1899	By Cash	5.00
1900	By Cash	5.00
1901	By Cash	5.00
1902	By Cash	5.00
1903	By Cash	5.00
1904	By Cash	5.00
1905	By Cash	5.00
1906	By Cash	5.00
1907	By Cash	5.00
1908	By Cash	5.00
1909	By Cash	5.00
1910	By Cash	5.00
1911	By Cash	5.00
1912	By Cash	5.00
1913	By Cash	5.00
1914	By Cash	5.00
1915	By Cash	5.00
1916	By Cash	5.00
1917	By Cash	5.00
1918	By Cash	5.00
1919	By Cash	5.00
1920	By Cash	5.00
1921	By Cash	5.00
1922	By Cash	5.00
1923	By Cash	5.00
1924	By Cash	5.00
1925	By Cash	5.00
1926	By Cash	5.00
1927	By Cash	5.00
1928	By Cash	5.00
1929	By Cash	5.00
1930	By Cash	5.00

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in kind." The total cost of poor relief in 1881 was £8,102,106.

In connection with poor relief, an important function lately thrown upon guardians is that of paying the school fees for children whose parents are too poor to pay them unassisted. In 1881 £33,000 were expended in this manner.

The parish valuation-lists are made out by the overseers, but they are subject to revision by a committee of the guardians, called the Assessment Committee, who hear and determine objections. An appeal lies from the guardians to the Quarter Sessions. Though the guardians are primarily the poor law authority, several matters unconnected with poor relief have lately been entrusted to their management. In rural districts, where there is no school board, a committee of the guardians constitutes the school-attendance committee. The guardians, too, are now the rural sanitary authority,"¹ and under an Act of 1878, when the area of a union is coincident with the area of a highway district, they may also become the highway authority, with all the powers of a district highway board. It is the duty of the guardians to appoint and pay the registrars of births and deaths, and to see that they are provided with suitable offices. The enforcement of the Vaccination Acts and the Bakehouse Regulation Acts is also entrusted to them. In populous places it is easy to imagine that their position is no sinecure. "They are often obliged," says a recent Lords' Committee,² "to attend for six hours or more to get through their present, which constitutes a heavy tax

¹ As to this see Chapter VII. p. 121.

² *Committee on Highways*, 1881, p. ix.

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1. **Introduction**
 2. **Background**
 3. **Methodology**
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 5. **Conclusion**
 6. **References**

Abstract

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Abstract

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on men of business, who have usually private affairs on which their livelihood depends." If rural areas are to be simplified, the end can hardly be attained by piling up functions on the already-overburdened guardians. If small parishes could be consolidated perhaps the township or parish might be galvanised into life again, and some of its old functions restored to the vestry. If the guardians were still overburdened, some of their functions might be transferred to the county. But the county, the union, and the parish ought, one would think, to be the only rural authorities, and the whole of the functions of rural local government ought to be parcelled out among them.

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Date	Description of work done	Remarks
1901	Jan 1 - 1901	1901
1902	Jan 1 - 1902	1902
1903	Jan 1 - 1903	1903
1904	Jan 1 - 1904	1904
1905	Jan 1 - 1905	1905
1906	Jan 1 - 1906	1906
1907	Jan 1 - 1907	1907
1908	Jan 1 - 1908	1908
1909	Jan 1 - 1909	1909
1910	Jan 1 - 1910	1910
1911	Jan 1 - 1911	1911
1912	Jan 1 - 1912	1912
1913	Jan 1 - 1913	1913

CHAPTER V.

THE MUNICIPAL BOROUGH.

English Towns—Creation of New Boroughs—History of Municipal Boroughs—The Municipal Corporations Act—Constitution of the Borough or City—Borough Officers—Functions of the Council—Borough Finance—Central Control.

IN England there is no system of town government as such. A certain number of favoured towns are incorporated and have a legal existence under the Municipal Corporations Act. For purposes of local government these only need be considered. A few more have Improvement Commissioners, who, under special Acts, are charged with the duty of carrying out certain specified works of public utility, such as lighting, paving, sewerage, and the like. Certain ancient towns have charters of incorporation, which enable them to hold and administer property for the benefit of those who have the freedom of the borough. For the most part, too, these ancient boroughs have mayors, aldermen, town councillors, and all the paraphernalia of urban government; but the functions of these officials, as regards local administration, are either purely nominal, or, like those of the human spleen, undiscoverable.¹

¹ Though their administrative functions are *nil*, the exercise of magisterial powers by the corporate officers is a serious matter.

CHAPTER 1

THE HISTORY OF THE WORLD

The history of the world is a long and complex one, spanning thousands of years and encompassing a vast range of cultures, societies, and events. It is a story of human progress, struggle, and achievement, shaped by the actions of countless individuals and the forces of nature.

From the earliest civilizations of Mesopotamia and Egypt to the modern world, the history of the world has been marked by significant milestones and challenges. The rise and fall of empires, the discovery of new lands, and the development of science and technology have all played a role in shaping the world we live in today. The history of the world is a testament to the resilience and ingenuity of the human race, and it serves as a source of inspiration and guidance for the future.

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¹ Though their administrative functions are *nil*, the exercise of magisterial powers by the corporate officers is a serious matter.

The great majority of towns in England have no legal existence or recognition. They are merely geographical names to denote certain arbitrarily defined or undefined areas, having an urban population. Take for instance Croydon, a well-known assize town in Surrey. What is meant by an inhabitant of "Croydon"? The parish of Croydon, or the local-board district of that name, or the school-board district, or all or none of them, may be intended. In 1871 there were 938 towns with a population of over 2000; of these only 229 were governed by municipal corporations under the Act of 1835, and 51 more had Improvement Commissions. There are now 242 municipal boroughs; but the number of towns, with a population exceeding 2000, has probably more than proportionally increased. This possession of municipal existence and privileges has no connection with the size of the population. There are 15 municipal boroughs with a population of less than 3000 inhabitants, and there are a great many towns with a population exceeding 25,000, which have no system of municipal government. The Municipal Corporations Act provides for the creation by charter of new municipalities. The procedure is as follows:—When a certain unspecified number of inhabitant-householders in a town deem themselves worthy of a municipal government, and wish to try the experiment, they may petition the Queen in Council to grant them a charter of incorporation, and to extend to the borough thus constituted the provisions of the Municipal Corporations Act. The petition is then advertised in the *London Gazette* and referred to a Committee of the Privy Council, who direct a local inquiry, in which evidence is taken for and against the proposal. Petitions for char-

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The first of these is the fact that the human race is not a homogeneous mass, but is divided into many distinct groups, each with its own characteristics. These groups are known as races, and they are distinguished from one another by their physical and mental qualities. The second fact is that the human race has a long and varied history, and that its development has been influenced by many factors, including environment, climate, and social conditions. The third fact is that the human race is constantly changing, and that its future is uncertain. These three facts are the basis of the study of anthropology, and they are the subjects of the following chapters.

The first chapter of the book is devoted to a general survey of the human race, and to a discussion of the methods of anthropology. The second chapter is devoted to a study of the physical characteristics of the human race, and to a discussion of the factors which influence these characteristics. The third chapter is devoted to a study of the mental characteristics of the human race, and to a discussion of the factors which influence these characteristics. The fourth chapter is devoted to a study of the social characteristics of the human race, and to a discussion of the factors which influence these characteristics. The fifth chapter is devoted to a study of the history of the human race, and to a discussion of the factors which influence its development. The sixth chapter is devoted to a study of the future of the human race, and to a discussion of the factors which influence its future.

The book is written in a clear and concise style, and it is well illustrated with numerous figures and tables. It is a valuable work for all those who are interested in the study of the human race, and it is a must-read for all students of anthropology.

ters appear to be sparingly made and still more sparingly granted. When the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835 was passed, 178 boroughs were included under its provisions. Since that time the town population of England has more than doubled, but the list of municipal boroughs has only been increased by 63 towns. The Committee of the Privy Council which advises upon the petition is empowered to settle a scheme for absorbing into the new corporation the existing local authorities, or for otherwise adjusting their relations with it. Any local authority affected by the scheme may oppose it. If the scheme be opposed, it requires confirmation by Act of Parliament, otherwise an Order in Council is sufficient. This concentration of petty local authorities into one central authority on the creation of a new borough is, perhaps, one main reason why so few charters are applied for. The existing authorities object to being extinguished. Absorption into a higher existence, with loss of personality, may be congenial to Buddhists, but does not commend itself to local busybodies. These little luminaries have a great objection to total eclipse. When a charter is granted it fixes the number of councillors the borough is to have, and the number and boundaries of the wards, if the borough is to be so subdivided. It also provides for the appointment of first officers, and makes such temporary modifications of the Municipal Corporations Act as may be necessary to start the working of the corporate machinery. Subject to this, when the charter comes into effect, the provisions of the Municipal Corporations Act thereupon apply to the new-born borough, and clothe it with a ready-made constitution. At the present day, therefore, municipal government is all of one

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type, and the mechanism by which its operations are carried on is practically the same in every borough. Liverpool, with its population of half a million, is administered exactly in the same way as Chippenham, a little county-town of 1300 inhabitants. Before proceeding to examine the system of municipal administration which now prevails, it may be worth while to take a glimpse back into the past, and to see what has been the history of municipal institutions in England.

The "burh" of the Anglo-Saxon period, says Professor Stubbs, was simply a more strictly organised form of township. It had a ditch and mound instead of a "tun" or hedge. As the "tun" was originally the fenced homestead of the cultivator, the "burh" was the fortified house and courtyard of the great noble.¹ Around his house and under his protection smaller men would naturally congregate, and the town, in the modern sense of the word, would thus arise. By the time of the Norman Conquest we find that many of the towns in England had acquired the constitution of the hundred rather than that of the township, and that they were therefore exempt from the jurisdiction of the hundred courts. In several cases in addition to holding their own courts, they had obtained the right to compound for taxation. But there was nothing approaching to the modern idea of a corporation, with its legal personality, its common seal and its perpetual succession. Even London under its port-reeve and bishop, the two officers who seemed to give it a unity and identity of its own, was only a bundle of communities, townships, and parishes, each of which

¹ Stubbs's *Const. Hist.* vol. i. pp. 92, 306.

1. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 2000; 284: 2689-2695.

1. **Introduction**
 2. **Background**
 3. **Methodology**
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 6. **References**

Abstract

Abstract

[illegible]

1. **Identify the main components of the system.**
 2. **Define the scope and objectives of the study.**
 3. **Review the literature related to the topic.**
 4. **Develop a methodology for data collection and analysis.**
 5. **Collect and analyze the data.**
 6. **Interpret the results and draw conclusions.**
 7. **Discuss the implications of the findings.**
 8. **Provide recommendations for future research.**

Abstract

1. **Identify the main topic or question.**
 2. **Read the text carefully.**
 3. **Underline the key words.**
 4. **Write a short summary.**
 5. **Answer the questions.**

Abstract

Figure 1

Abstract

Abstract

WUOLAH

Abstract

Abstract

1. The first step is to identify the problem or question that needs to be answered. This involves understanding the context and the specific requirements of the task.

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type, and the mechanism by which its operations are carried on is practically the same in every borough. Liverpool, with its population of half a million, is administered exactly in the same way as Chippenham, a little county-town of 1300 inhabitants. Before proceeding to examine the system of municipal administration which now prevails, it may be worth while to take a glimpse back into the past, and to see what has been the history of municipal institutions in England.

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had its own constitution.¹ As time went on, we find the towns gradually acquiring further privileges by grant or charter from the lord or the king himself. The most important of these was the "*firma burgi*," the right to pay a fixed sum by way of composition for taxes, and to assess and pay that sum themselves. As the towns acquired importance in the country at large, by reason of their wealth and trade, so the trade guilds acquired strength and importance in the towns themselves. The regulation of trade fell into their hands, and their privileges were frequently confirmed by charters. It must not be thought, however, that the towns developed on any uniform principle. Each town had its peculiar constitution and customs, though a certain general resemblance may perhaps be recognised throughout. The history of municipal institutions, in their broad outline, between the reign of Henry III. and that of Henry VII. is thus summed up by Professor Stubbs:—²

"In 1216 the most advanced among the English towns had succeeded in obtaining, by their respective charters, and with local differences, the right of holding and taking the profits of their own courts under their elected officers, the exclusion of the sheriff from judicial work within their boundaries, the right of collecting and compounding for their own payments to the Crown, the right of electing their own bailiffs, and in some instances of electing a mayor, and the recognition of their merchant guilds by charter, and their craft guilds by charter or fine. At the close of the period the typical constitution

¹ Stubbs's *Const. Hist.* vol. i. p. 404.

² *Const. Hist.* vol. iii. p. 559.

The following table shows the results of the regression analysis for the dependent variable "Number of children in the household" (N = 1,000). The independent variables are "Age of the head of household" and "Gender of the head of household". The table includes the coefficient estimates, standard errors, t-statistics, and p-values for each variable.

Variable	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-statistic	p-value
Age of the head of household	0.05	0.02	2.50	0.012
Gender of the head of household (Male = 1, Female = 0)	-0.15	0.08	-1.88	0.061
Constant	1.20	0.10	12.00	<0.001

The regression results indicate that the age of the head of household has a positive and statistically significant effect on the number of children in the household. For every year increase in age, the number of children increases by approximately 0.05. The gender of the head of household also has a statistically significant effect, with male heads of household having a higher number of children than female heads of household.

... ..

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of a town is a close corporation of mayor, aldermen, and council, with precisely defined organisation and numbers, —not indeed uniform, but of the same general conformation, possessing a new character denoted by the name of corporation in its definite legal sense, with powers varying in the different communities and in practice susceptible of wide variations.” The first historical mayor was Henry Fitz Alwyn, Mayor of London. In 1215, on his death, King John granted to the citizens the right of electing their mayor annually. The mayor was assisted by twenty-five sworn citizens or jurats, who seem afterwards to have acquired the name of aldermen, though that title was originally applied to the heads of the craft guilds. As London was the most powerful and privileged of the towns, the other towns would naturally take it as their model, and try to secure for themselves like privileges and institutions. The constitutional history of Leicester may be taken as typical of that of many other boroughs. “The chief court of the town was the portman-mote, in which the bailiff of the lord continued to preside until 1246. There was also a merchant guild presided over by aldermen. From the year 1246 a mayor took the place of the alderman and edged out the bailiff, but the portman-mote and merchant guild retained their name and functions. Under the merchant guild were the craft guilds. The tailors’ guild paid ten shillings to the merchant guild for every new master tailor enfranchised, and doubtless the other trades did the like. In 1464 Edward IV. recognised the position of twenty-four common burgesses and a court of common council, who in 1467 were empowered to elect the mayor. In 1484 the

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twenty-four took the title of aldermen, and divided the town into twelve wards; and in 1489 the mayor, twenty-four aldermen, and forty-eight councillors, formed themselves into a strictly close corporation, took an oath by which all the other freemen were excluded from municipal elections, and in 1504 obtained a fresh charter confirming their new constitution.”¹ In many of the towns, however, though the type of administration was similar, it was rested on a more representative basis. The councillors were elected from among and by the freemen at large. In nearly all the freedom of the borough could be obtained by gift or purchase as well as by service, marriage, or descent. There was always, however, a large body of inhabitants who were outside the privileged class, and who in consequence were subject to various vexatious restrictions and imposts. In substance, then, the chartered towns had, in the fifteenth century, acquired much of the form and organisation which we find existing at the time when they were so searchingly overhauled by the Royal Commission of 1835. During the reign of Richard II. began the practice of including in municipal charters a provision making the corporate officers justices of the peace. Each chartered borough or city, moreover, had the right of sending one or more burgesses to Parliament to represent it there. The first charter which expressly recognises this right was that granted to Wenlock in the reign of Edward IV.; but the chartered recognition of the right was probably in many cases a mere confirmation of existing privileges. In the middle ages the policy of the Crown was to strengthen the towns in order to create

¹ Stubbs's *Const. Hist.* vol. iii. p. 581.

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a counterpoise to the power of the nobles. Until the reign of Henry VII. the encroachments on popular liberty within the towns themselves had been local and spontaneous, but during the Tudor period the Crown began to grant charters vesting all the powers of municipal government in the mayor or other head officer and the council. By many of these charters the same governing body was entrusted with the exclusive right of returning members to Parliament. The Crown was no longer afraid of the aristocracy, and in many instances the office of high steward was created and given to some powerful peer or landowner, who became the patron of the borough, and practically disposed of the parliamentary seat.¹ The Commonwealth, however, crushed the power of the aristocracy, and at the time of the Restoration the Crown and Court party found themselves opposed by the towns as the representatives of democracy. The middle classes in the main were whig and protestant. It was therefore determined to attack the boroughs through the courts of law. A *quo warranto* information was instituted by the Attorney-General against the City of London, and its charter was declared by the Court of King's Bench to be forfeited, on the ground that it had exceeded its jurisdiction in the exaction of certain market tolls. The forfeiture was not insisted upon, but the City was allowed to continue to possess its franchises upon submission to certain regulations—such, for instance, that no mayor, sheriff, or recorder should be admitted until approved by the king—which made it thoroughly subservient to the Crown. After the fall of the capital *quo warranto* informations

¹ Sir E. May's *Const. Hist.* vol. ii. p. 495.

■ **CONCLUSION** The authors of the review conclude that the evidence is insufficient to support the use of any of the reviewed interventions for the management of acute low back pain. They also conclude that the evidence is insufficient to support the use of any of the reviewed interventions for the management of chronic low back pain.

1000

1. The first step is to identify the problem or question that needs to be answered. This involves understanding the context and the specific requirements of the task.

1. **Introduction**
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1. The first step is to identify the problem or question that needs to be answered. This involves understanding the context and the specific requirements of the task.

2. The second step is to gather relevant information and data. This can involve research, consultation with experts, or collecting data from various sources.

3. The third step is to analyze the information and data collected. This involves identifying patterns, trends, and relationships that can help in understanding the problem.

4. The fourth step is to develop a solution or answer. This involves applying the knowledge and skills gained from the previous steps to create a response that addresses the problem.

5. The fifth step is to evaluate the solution or answer. This involves checking the results against the original problem and requirements to ensure that the solution is effective and accurate.

Abstract

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a counterpoise to the power of the nobles. Until the reign of Henry VII. the encroachments on popular liberty within the towns themselves had been local and spontaneous, but during the Tudor period the Crown began to grant charters vesting all the powers of municipal government in the mayor or other head officer and the council. By many of these charters the same governing body was entrusted with the exclusive right of returning members to Parliament. The Crown was no longer afraid of the aristocracy, and in many instances the office of high steward was created and given to some powerful peer or landowner, who became the patron of the borough, and practically disposed of the parliamentary seat.¹ The Commonwealth, however, crushed the power of the aristocracy, and at the time of the Restoration the Crown and Court party found themselves opposed by the towns as the representatives of democracy. The middle classes in the main were whig and protestant. It was therefore determined to attack the boroughs through the courts of law. A *quo warranto* information was instituted by the Attorney-General against the City of London, and its charter was declared by the Court of King's Bench to be forfeited, on the ground that it had exceeded its jurisdiction in the exaction of certain market tolls. The forfeiture was not insisted upon, but the City was allowed to continue to possess its franchises upon submission to certain regulations—such, for instance, that no mayor, sheriff, or recorder should be admitted until approved by the king—which made it thoroughly subservient to the Crown. After the fall of the capital *quo warranto* informations

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were brought against several other towns, and many more hastened to anticipate attack by voluntarily surrendering their charters. Judge Jeffreys, who went the Northern Circuit in 1684, boasted that "he made all the charters, like the walls of Jericho, fall down before him, and that he returned laden with surrenders, the spoils of the towns." The towns received instead new charters, framing their constitutions on a more oligarchical model, and reserving to the Crown the first appointment of those who were to form the governing part of the corporation.¹ After 1688, however, most of the corporations resumed their old charters, and the influence of the prerogative was no longer felt. From this time down to 1832 the history of the boroughs is parliamentary rather than municipal. The charters of the Georgian period were framed nearly on the model of those of the preceding era, and showed the same disregard for the improvement of municipal policy corresponding with the progress of society.² The freedom of a borough was chiefly valuable for the parliamentary vote it carried with it. Admission into the corporate body was sought mainly with a view to the lucrative exercise of the elective franchise. "A great number of corporations," say the Commissioners of 1835,³ "have been preserved solely as political engines, and the towns to which they belong derive no benefit, but often much injury, from their existence. To maintain the political ascendancy of a party, or the political influence of a family, has been the one end and object for which the powers entrusted to

¹ Hallam, *Const. Hist.* vol. iii. p. 455.

² *Rep. Mun. Corp.* 1835, p. 17.

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those bodies have been exercised. This object has been systematically pursued in the admission of freemen, resident or non-resident; in the selection of municipal functionaries for the council and the magistracy; in the appointment of subordinate officers and the local police; in the administration of charities intrusted to the municipal authorities; in the expenditure of corporate revenues; and in the management of corporate property." As a rule the numbers of the privileged freemen were strictly kept down, but political exigencies sometimes created an exception. Thus at Maldon, where the average admission of freemen was seventeen per annum, 1000 were created during the election of 1826. During the same election the corporation of Leicester spent £10,000 and mortgaged a part of their property to secure the return of a political partisan.¹ The political abuses connected with the boroughs were swept away by the Reform Act of 1832. Many of the smaller boroughs were disfranchised, the parliamentary boundaries of others were resettled, and the franchise was bestowed on all £10 occupiers, whether freemen or not. But the spirit of reform had not yet spent itself. It was determined to reconstruct the municipal organisation of the boroughs on a broad and popular basis, and to restore their efficiency in local administration. In 1833 a Royal Commission had been appointed to conduct a searching inquiry into the nature and conduct of our municipal institutions. Their Report, which has already been cited, showed that it was an Augæan stable that had to be cleansed. Municipal functions were almost entirely neglected, and jobbery, corruption, and oppression

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1. The first step is to identify the problem. This involves understanding the current situation and what needs to be improved.

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1. The first step is to identify the problem. This involves understanding the current situation and what needs to be changed.

Abstract

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were almost universal. The great mass of the townspeople were excluded from corporate privileges and from any share in town government. The municipal councils for the most part were self-elected, and the members held office for life. In Plymouth, where the population was 75,000, the number of freemen was 437, of whom 145 were non-resident. In Ipswich less than two per cent of the inhabitants enjoyed corporate privileges, and of that two per cent a large number were paupers. In Portsmouth, with a population of 45,000, the number of freemen was 102. The freemen in many boroughs enjoyed exclusive trading privileges, and were exempt from borough tolls and market dues. In Newcastle the payment of these tolls made a difference to one merchant of £450 per annum. In Liverpool the tolls were even heavier. Corporate funds, which were not spent on political corruption, were "frequently expended in feasting and paying the salaries of unimportant officers." Pluralism in holding lucrative corporate offices was common. Corporate contracts and lands were let out to corporators on terms most beneficial to the latter. In some boroughs the coroner was a small tradesman. In many boroughs where the recorder had large criminal and civil jurisdiction, he was not necessarily a lawyer. In nearly all boroughs the aldermen were *ex officio* magistrates. The juries were taken exclusively from the freemen, and the administration of justice was tainted with political partisanship. At Haverfordwest the opinion was given that "it was impossible to convict a burgess." The corporate magistrates, apart from political bias, were often wholly unfit for the discharge of judicial functions. At Malmesbury some of the magistrates

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could not read or write. At Wenlock it was their habit to sign blank warrants. At East Retford a magistrate on one occasion amused himself by fighting the prisoner.¹ The whole Report is instructive reading and fully justifies the conclusion arrived at by the Commissioners—namely, “that there prevails amongst the inhabitants of a great majority of the incorporated towns a general and, in our opinion, a just dissatisfaction with their municipal institutions, and a distrust of the self-elected municipal councils whose powers are subject to no popular control, and whose acts and proceedings, being secret, are unchecked by the influence of public opinion.”² The Commissioners reported in 1835, and very effective legislation followed on their Report in the same year. The Municipal Corporations Act, 1835 (5 & 6 Will. IV. c. 76), swept away the abuses laid bare by the Report, and provided a uniform constitution for all boroughs to which it applied, based on the model of the best administered existing municipal corporations. The Act begins by reciting, “that divers bodies corporate at sundry times have been constituted within the cities, towns, and boroughs of England and Wales, to the intent that the same might for ever be and remain well and quietly governed; and it is expedient that the charters by which the said bodies corporate are constituted should be altered in the manner hereinafter mentioned.” It then proceeds to annul all charters and customs inconsistent with its provisions, and to frame a model constitution, which, with slight modifications, should apply to all towns then or thereafter to be brought

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under the Act. In brief outline the reforms which it effected were these: it took away magisterial powers from the aldermen, provided that the recorder should be a trained lawyer, abolished all trading monopolies, exemptions, and restrictions, shortened the tenure of elective officers, gave the franchise to all inhabitant ratepayers, and provided for the honest administration of corporate funds and the efficient discharge of municipal duties. It was at first intended to bring London under the Act, but the intention was temporarily abandoned, and down to the present day the corporation of London retains its ancient constitution. The Act of 1835, which constitutes the great charter of English municipal liberty, has been amended by no less than forty-two subsequent enactments. The whole, however, are now brought together and reproduced in the Municipal Corporations Act, 1882, probably the best-drafted Act on the statute-book. We have therefore now a complete municipal code, and in the sketch which follows of our existing municipal system the provisions of that Act need alone be referred to.

Where a town, not being a city, is governed by the Municipal Corporations Act, the municipal corporation of the place consists of the mayor, aldermen, and burgesses, and is named accordingly.¹ For instance, the proper style of the corporation of Cambridge is "the mayor, aldermen, and burgesses of Cambridge." When a corporation contains a cathedral and a bishop, it is entitled to the more dignified name of city, and its burgesses are styled citizens; but for purposes of local government the distinction is purely one of name. The

¹ See Act of 1882 (45 & 46 Vict. c. 50), sec. 8.

The following table shows the results of the regression analysis for the dependent variable "Number of children in the household" (N = 1,000). The table is organized into three columns: "Variable", "Coefficient", and "Standard Error". The variables are categorized into "Demographics", "Economics", and "Social". The coefficients represent the estimated effect of each variable on the number of children in the household, while the standard errors indicate the precision of these estimates.

Variable	Coefficient	Standard Error
Age	-0.05	0.01
Gender	0.10	0.02
Marital Status	0.20	0.03
Income	-0.15	0.04
Education	-0.10	0.02
Religion	0.05	0.01
Region	0.15	0.03
Urban	0.10	0.02
Rural	0.05	0.01
Constant	1.50	0.10

The regression results indicate that the number of children in the household is influenced by various factors. Age and income have negative coefficients, suggesting that older parents and those with lower income tend to have fewer children. Conversely, marital status, education, and region have positive coefficients, indicating that married individuals, those with higher education, and those in certain regions tend to have more children. The constant term represents the expected number of children for a baseline individual.

1. The first step is to identify the problem or question that needs to be addressed. This involves understanding the context and the specific requirements of the task.

2. Next, it is important to gather relevant information and data. This can be done through research, consultation with experts, or by analyzing existing resources.

3. Once the information is gathered, the next step is to develop a plan or strategy. This involves breaking down the problem into smaller, manageable parts and determining the best approach to solve each part.

4. The fourth step is to implement the plan. This involves putting the strategy into action and monitoring progress to ensure that the goals are being met.

5. Finally, it is important to evaluate the results and make adjustments as needed. This involves reflecting on what worked well and what didn't, and using that information to improve future performance.

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proper style of the corporation of Oxford, therefore, is the mayor, aldermen, and citizens of Oxford.¹

The boundaries of municipal boroughs have not been settled on any definite principle, and there is no power of readjusting them without a special Act of Parliament. They intersect parishes, unions, and counties. A municipal borough is frequently not conterminous with the parliamentary borough of the same name. The boundaries of the borough may or may not be, though they usually are, the boundaries of the sanitary district and school board of the place. In short, boroughs are carved out of the surrounding country in the same haphazard way as other local areas in England.

Freemen, as such, have no rights as burgesses. They are entitled to the parliamentary franchise; and their rights to a share in corporate property and charities, which existed prior to 1835, are carefully preserved; but no claim to exemption from any borough tolls or dues is to be recognised.² No person can now be admitted a freeman by gift or purchase.

The municipal franchise is rested on a firm basis of ratepaying residence. Every person who occupies a house, warehouse, shop, or other building in the borough for which he pays rates, and who resides within seven miles of the borough, is entitled to be enrolled as a burgess. The right of women to be enrolled and vote as burgesses is expressly recognised by the Act;³ but it does not appear that they may hold any corporate office.

¹ A municipal corporation has a common seal, a perpetual succession, and the power of holding lands in mortmain. It may act, contract, sue, and be sued in the corporate name.

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The main rights and duties of a burgess are—(1) That he is entitled to vote at the election of councillors, elective auditors, and revising assessors; (2) That he is eligible for any corporate office, and is liable to fine if he refuses to serve on election; (3) That he is eligible and liable to serve on borough juries. The overseers annually make out the burgess list for each parish in the borough for submission to the revision court. Where a municipal borough is also a parliamentary borough, the revising barrister revises the municipal list at the same time that he revises the parliamentary lists. In other cases the revision court consists of the mayor, aided by two revising assessors. The revising assessors must be burgesses who are qualified to be councillors, but who are not on the council.

The governing body of the borough is the Council. The Act provides that a municipal corporation "shall be capable of acting by the council of the borough, and the council shall exercise all powers vested in the corporation. The council shall consist of the mayor, aldermen, and councillors."

The number of councillors is fixed when the borough is incorporated under the Act. The qualification for a councillor is that he should be "qualified to elect to the office of councillor"—that is to say, be enrolled as a burgess, or that, being qualified, except in the matter of residence, he should reside within fifteen, though beyond seven miles from the borough, and have also an extra property qualification. A person who is interested in any contract made with the council, or who is in holy orders, or the regular minister of a dissenting congregation, is disqualified for the office of councillor. Elections

The American Medical Association is a non-profit corporation organized for the purpose of promoting the interests of the medical profession and the public. It is organized into a national association and a number of state associations. The national association is organized into a number of departments, each of which is responsible for a specific function. The departments are: the Department of Education, the Department of Legislation, the Department of Public Relations, the Department of Research, the Department of Statistics, the Department of Training, the Department of Welfare, and the Department of Work. The Department of Education is responsible for the education of the medical profession and the public. The Department of Legislation is responsible for the enactment of laws and regulations that affect the medical profession and the public. The Department of Public Relations is responsible for the promotion of the interests of the medical profession and the public. The Department of Research is responsible for the conduct of research in the field of medicine. The Department of Statistics is responsible for the collection and analysis of statistical data. The Department of Training is responsible for the training of medical students and residents. The Department of Welfare is responsible for the promotion of the welfare of the medical profession and the public. The Department of Work is responsible for the conduct of the work of the association.

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to the council are held on the 1st of November in every year. The term for which a councillor holds office is three years, and every year one-third of the councillors go out by rotation. An outgoing councillor is eligible for re-election.

The election of councillors is conducted on the model of a parliamentary election. If a borough is not divided into wards the mayor acts as returning-officer. If it is divided into wards, elections to the council are held simultaneously in the different wards, and an alderman assigned for the purpose to each ward acts as returning-officer. If more candidates are nominated than there are vacancies, and a poll is demanded, the election is conducted by ballot, as nearly as may be in accordance with the provisions of the Ballot Act, 1872. In the great majority of boroughs the elections are governed by considerations of party politics. A municipal election is regarded as a means of feeling the political pulse of the inhabitants, and purely local questions seem to have but little influence on the result. Persons guilty of corrupt practices at a municipal election are liable to be punished in the same way as if the offence had been committed at a parliamentary election. If it be desired to question an election on the ground of corrupt practices thereat, the procedure is by petition to the High Court. The petition is tried by a commissioner sent down by the High Court, who must be a barrister of not less than fifteen years' standing. The procedure before him for the most part resembles the procedure in a parliamentary election petition.

The number of the aldermen is one-third of that of the councillors, which, as we have seen, is a varying

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The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the
 Journal of Management Education in the field of management
 education. It highlights the journal's role in providing
 a platform for the dissemination of research findings and
 the advancement of the discipline. The second part of the
 paper focuses on the journal's commitment to diversity and
 inclusion, emphasizing the need for a more equitable and
 inclusive research agenda. The third part of the paper
 discusses the journal's efforts to promote the use of
 research in management education, highlighting the
 importance of evidence-based practice. The fourth part of
 the paper discusses the journal's commitment to
 transparency and accountability, emphasizing the need for
 open access and the sharing of research data. The fifth
 part of the paper discusses the journal's commitment to
 the future of management education, highlighting the
 need for innovation and the development of new
 research paradigms. The final part of the paper
 discusses the journal's commitment to the management
 education community, emphasizing the need for
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The Mayor is the chief officer in the corporation. He has precedence of all persons in the borough. The mayor is elected by the council from among the aldermen or councillors, or persons qualified to be such. An outgoing alderman is eligible, and as a fact an alderman is usually selected for the office. As he represents the borough on public occasions, and especially when it is dispensing hospitality, it is only fair that he should receive a salary. The amount of his remuneration is fixed by the council. The election takes place on the 9th of November at the ordinary quarterly meeting of the council, and the statute directs that it shall be the first business transacted at the meeting. The mayor is

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The following table shows the results of the regression analysis for the dependent variable "Number of children in the household" (N = 1,000). The independent variables are "Age of the head of household" and "Gender of the head of household". The table includes the coefficient estimates, standard errors, t-statistics, and p-values for each variable.

Variable	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-statistic	p-value
Age of the head of household	0.001	0.000	1.2	0.23
Gender of the head of household (Male = 1, Female = 0)	-0.05	0.02	-2.5	0.01
Constant	1.5	0.1	15.0	0.00

The regression results indicate that the age of the head of household has a very small, positive effect on the number of children in the household, which is not statistically significant. However, the gender of the head of household has a significant negative effect, suggesting that households headed by females tend to have fewer children than those headed by males.

The following table shows the results of the regression analysis for the dependent variable "Number of children in the household" (N = 1,000). The independent variables are "Age of the head of household" and "Gender of the head of household". The table includes the coefficient estimates, standard errors, t-statistics, and p-values for each variable.

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Constant	1.5	0.1	15.0	0.00

The regression results indicate that the number of children in the household is positively related to the age of the head of household, but the relationship is not statistically significant at the 5% level (p = 0.23). However, the gender of the head of household is a significant determinant, with male heads of household having a higher number of children in the household (p = 0.01).

ex officio a magistrate for the borough, and chairman of all meetings of the council. With the exception of the mayor and ex-mayor, all borough magistrates are now appointed by the Crown. The mayor is the returning-officer in parliamentary elections, and in the election of councillors if the borough is not divided into wards. When the borough is not a parliamentary borough, in conjunction with two assessors he acts as the revision court. He is also an *ex officio* member of the watch committee. If he dies or becomes bankrupt while in office, the town clerk must call a meeting of the council to fill up the vacancy. If he is temporarily incapacitated by illness or otherwise, he may appoint a deputy.

We have now discussed the three constituent factors of the council,—namely, the mayor, the aldermen, and the councillors. Directly or indirectly, as we have seen, they are all chosen from and elected by the burgesses at large. The Central Government takes no part or share in their election. In France the maire and his deputy the adjoint are the nominees of the Government, and for the most part constitute very efficient spokes in the municipal council's wheel. Spanish municipalities since 1869 have enjoyed the right of electing their own alcalde, but this apparent liberty of choice is fettered by a provision that he must be able to read and write. In Germany the Crown has a veto on the election of the burgomaster, and his appointment therefore requires the royal sanction.¹ In England happily no such restrictions are necessary, and our boroughs

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enjoy complete independence as regards the appointment of their governing body.

A few words must now be said about the officers of the council. They are the Town Clerk, the Treasurer, and "such other officers as have usually been appointed in the borough, or as the council think necessary."¹ The town clerk holds his office during the pleasure of the council, and his salary is fixed by them. He has the custody of the charters, deeds, records, and documents of the borough, and it is his duty to issue the summonses for the meetings of the council, and to act as secretary to the council at their meetings and otherwise. The treasurer, too, holds office during the pleasure of the council, and his salary is fixed by them. It is his duty to receive and make all payments on behalf of the corporation. All officers appointed by the council must give security for the due execution of their duties, and there are stringent provisions for making them account.

The officers above referred to are the ordinary staff of every borough, but many boroughs have, in addition to their normal functions, wholly or in part the organisation of a county, having their own Commissions of the Peace, and Courts of Quarter Sessions; and this of course involves additional officers.

If a borough has not a separate court of quarter sessions, the council may petition her Majesty in Council to grant one. The petition must specify the grounds of the application, and the salary that the council is willing to pay the judge. The salary for the most part is a nominal one of some £40 or £50. In borough quarter

¹ Act of 1882, sec. 19.

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sessions the justices do not act as judges, but the office of judge must be filled by a barrister of not less than five years' standing, who is called the Recorder. The recorder is appointed by the Crown, on the recommendation of the Home Secretary. He holds office during good behaviour, is *ex officio* a justice for the borough, and has precedence next after the mayor. The same barrister may be appointed recorder for two or more boroughs. The recorder may not be an alderman or councillor for the borough, nor may he sit for it in Parliament. In the case of unavoidable absence he may appoint a qualified barrister to act as his deputy for the next ensuing sessions.

If the borough has, by prescription, a court of civil jurisdiction, the recorder is the judge of that court unless some local Act otherwise provides. There are eighteen boroughs having civil courts with very various jurisdictions, but in several of these the courts exist only in name, for the county courts have concurrent jurisdiction and are preferred by the suitors.

The criminal jurisdiction of the recorder is the same as that of a court of quarter sessions in the county, and the procedure in court is strictly analogous. The maximum sentence which he can give is one of seven years' penal servitude. On the civil side his jurisdiction is limited, and the Act prohibits him from making or altering any borough rate or exercising any licensing jurisdiction.

Incidental to a court of quarter sessions are the offices of Clerk of the Peace and Coroner. The clerk of the peace is appointed by the council and paid by fees. The coroner also is appointed by the council. Any "fit

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person," who is not an alderman or councillor, is eligible; but if the coroner appoints a deputy to act for him during unavoidable absence, the deputy must be a barrister or solicitor. The coroner holds office during good behaviour, and is paid by fees, which must be certified for by the recorder. The duties of the coroner and the procedure on inquests are the same as in the county.

If the council desire the appointment of a Stipendiary Magistrate, they may petition the Home Secretary to appoint one. If appointed, the stipendiary holds office during her Majesty's pleasure. He must be a barrister of seven years' standing, and is paid by yearly salary. He has the powers of two justices acting together. Fifteen boroughs only have stipendiary magistrates.

In those boroughs where the county authorities have no jurisdiction, and which are known as counties of cities or counties of towns, as the case may be, the council must also appoint a Sheriff. The appointment must be made at the quarterly meeting of the council on the 9th November, immediately after the election of the mayor.

Under the Sale of Food and Drugs Act, 1875, the council may be required by the Local Government Board to appoint a public analyst.

Having briefly described the constitution of the council and the officers at its disposal, the duties and powers of the council must next be considered. The council must hold four quarterly meetings every year for the transaction of general business. The mayor may also call a meeting at any time. If the mayor refuses to call a meeting, five members of the council may call it.

1. The first part of the document discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions and activities. It emphasizes that proper record-keeping is essential for transparency and accountability, particularly in financial matters. The text outlines various methods for collecting and organizing data, ensuring that all relevant information is captured and stored systematically.

2. The second part of the document focuses on the analysis and interpretation of the collected data. It describes how to identify trends, patterns, and anomalies within the dataset. This section also addresses the challenges associated with data analysis, such as incomplete information or conflicting sources, and provides strategies to overcome these obstacles.

3. The third part of the document discusses the application of the analyzed data to decision-making processes. It highlights the role of data in identifying opportunities, assessing risks, and informing strategic planning. The text provides examples of how data-driven insights can be used to optimize operations, improve efficiency, and enhance overall performance.

4. The fourth part of the document addresses the ethical considerations surrounding data collection and analysis. It discusses the importance of obtaining informed consent from individuals whose data is being collected and the need to protect their privacy. The text also touches upon the potential for bias and discrimination in data-driven decisions and offers guidelines to ensure fairness and equity in the use of data.

5. The fifth part of the document provides a summary of the key findings and conclusions drawn from the analysis. It reiterates the importance of data in decision-making and the need for ongoing monitoring and evaluation to ensure the effectiveness of the implemented strategies. The text concludes by emphasizing the commitment to transparency and accountability throughout the entire process.

6. The sixth part of the document provides a detailed overview of the methodology used in the study. It describes the data sources, the collection methods, and the analytical techniques employed. This section is intended to provide transparency and allow for the replication of the study by other researchers. It also discusses the limitations of the study and the potential for future research to build upon the findings.

7. The seventh part of the document provides a detailed overview of the results of the study. It presents the data in a clear and concise manner, using tables and graphs to illustrate the findings. This section is intended to provide a comprehensive overview of the study's outcomes and to highlight the key findings that have implications for decision-making.

8. The eighth part of the document provides a detailed overview of the conclusions drawn from the study. It summarizes the main findings and discusses their implications for practice. The text also provides recommendations for future research and offers suggestions for how the findings can be applied to improve decision-making processes.

person," who is not an alderman or councillor, is eligible; but if the coroner appoints a deputy to act for him during unavoidable absence, the deputy must be a barrister or solicitor. The coroner holds office during good behaviour, and is paid by fees, which must be certified for by the recorder. The duties of the coroner and the procedure on inquests are the same as in the county.

If the council desire the appointment of a Stipendiary Magistrate, they may petition the Home Secretary to appoint one. If appointed, the stipendiary holds office during her Majesty's pleasure. He must be a barrister of seven years' standing, and is paid by yearly salary. He has the powers of two justices acting together. Fifteen boroughs only have stipendiary magistrates.

In those boroughs where the county authorities have no jurisdiction, and which are known as counties of cities or counties of towns, as the case may be, the council must also appoint a Sheriff. The appointment must be made at the quarterly meeting of the council on the 9th November, immediately after the election of the mayor.

Under the Sale of Food and Drugs Act, 1875, the council may be required by the Local Government Board to appoint a public analyst.

Having briefly described the constitution of the council and the officers at its disposal, the duties and powers of the council must next be considered. The council must hold four quarterly meetings every year for the transaction of general business. The mayor may also call a meeting at any time. If the mayor refuses to call a meeting, five members of the council may call it.

given to them to make over their property and functions to the council.¹ The council has the same powers and duties as regards borough bridges that the justices have in the case of county bridges. The council may purchase land not exceeding five acres for borough buildings, and may build "a town-hall, council-house, justices' room, with or without a police station and cells, or a quarter and petty sessions' house, or an assize courthouse, with or without judges' lodgings, or a polling station, or any other building necessary for any borough purpose." The council are not allowed to sell, or mortgage, or let out on long lease, any of the borough land without the approval of the Treasury. An exception is made in favour of long leases of land for the purpose of working-men's dwellings, under specified regulations. The misapplication of corporate property (more especially for the purpose of any parliamentary election) is severely punished.² The maintenance of the police force is confided to a committee of the council called the Watch Committee. The watch committee must include the mayor and such number of the council, not exceeding one-third of the whole, as may be appointed to act on it. The watch committee must appoint "a sufficient number of fit men to be borough constables," and is empowered to make rules for their regulation and guidance. The power of dismissal is also vested in the watch committee. If in any emergency the borough police force is not sufficient, the justices having jurisdiction in the borough may appoint special constables to assist.³

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No.	Description of work	Date
1	The first part of the report deals with the general situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.	1950
2	The second part of the report deals with the economic situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.	1951
3	The third part of the report deals with the social situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.	1952
4	The fourth part of the report deals with the cultural situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.	1953
5	The fifth part of the report deals with the political situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.	1954
6	The sixth part of the report deals with the legal situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.	1955
7	The seventh part of the report deals with the administrative situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.	1956
8	The eighth part of the report deals with the financial situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.	1957
9	The ninth part of the report deals with the health situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.	1958
10	The tenth part of the report deals with the education situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.	1959
11	The eleventh part of the report deals with the housing situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.	1960
12	The twelfth part of the report deals with the transport situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.	1961
13	The thirteenth part of the report deals with the communication situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.	1962
14	The fourteenth part of the report deals with the energy situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.	1963
15	The fifteenth part of the report deals with the environment situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.	1964
16	The sixteenth part of the report deals with the foreign relations situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.	1965
17	The seventeenth part of the report deals with the international situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.	1966
18	The eighteenth part of the report deals with the world situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.	1967
19	The nineteenth part of the report deals with the future situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.	1968
20	The twentieth part of the report deals with the conclusion of the report and the position of the various groups of the population.	1969
21	The twenty-first part of the report deals with the summary of the report and the position of the various groups of the population.	1970
22	The twenty-second part of the report deals with the index of the report and the position of the various groups of the population.	1971
23	The twenty-third part of the report deals with the bibliography of the report and the position of the various groups of the population.	1972
24	The twenty-fourth part of the report deals with the appendix of the report and the position of the various groups of the population.	1973
25	The twenty-fifth part of the report deals with the conclusion of the report and the position of the various groups of the population.	1974
26	The twenty-sixth part of the report deals with the summary of the report and the position of the various groups of the population.	1975
27	The twenty-seventh part of the report deals with the index of the report and the position of the various groups of the population.	1976
28	The twenty-eighth part of the report deals with the bibliography of the report and the position of the various groups of the population.	1977
29	The twenty-ninth part of the report deals with the appendix of the report and the position of the various groups of the population.	1978
30	The thirtieth part of the report deals with the conclusion of the report and the position of the various groups of the population.	1979
31	The thirty-first part of the report deals with the summary of the report and the position of the various groups of the population.	1980
32	The thirty-second part of the report deals with the index of the report and the position of the various groups of the population.	1981
33	The thirty-third part of the report deals with the bibliography of the report and the position of the various groups of the population.	1982
34	The thirty-fourth part of the report deals with the appendix of the report and the position of the various groups of the population.	1983
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39	The thirty-ninth part of the report deals with the appendix of the report and the position of the various groups of the population.	1988
40	The fortieth part of the report deals with the conclusion of the report and the position of the various groups of the population.	1989

finance.¹ The subject may be considered under the three heads of Expenditure, Loans, and Accounts. All rents, profits, and receipts from corporate property go to a fund called the Borough Fund. All the ordinary expenditure of the corporation is primarily to be made out of this fund. If the fund is more than sufficient to meet the expenditure (a millennial state of things which, it is believed, has yet never been realised), the surplus must be applied, under the direction of the council, "for the public benefit of the inhabitants and the improvement of the borough." If the fund is insufficient, the council must from time to time order a rate, called a Borough Rate, to be made in the borough to make up the deficiency. The council assess the amount to be contributed for each parish. The assessment is usually based on the poor-rate valuation, but a special valuation may be made if necessary. The rate is collected by the overseers—that is to say, they are responsible for its collection. Provision is made for adjusting accounts between the borough and the county, when borough prisoners are sent for trial into the county. The expenses of the police force are in certain cases provided for out of a special rate, called the Watch Rate, instead of out of the borough rate. If on inspection the force is certified to be efficient, the Treasury make a grant in aid amounting to half the pay of the men. The Treasury also contribute towards the cost of criminal prosecutions.

Where expenditure is incurred on works of utility of a more or less permanent character, the necessary funds are usually raised by loan, repayable by instalments and

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The accounts of most local authorities are now audited by the Local Government Board, but boroughs are exempt from this jurisdiction. The audit is conducted by three borough auditors, two elected by the burgesses, called elective auditors, and one appointed by the mayor, called the mayor's auditor. An elective auditor must be qualified to be a councillor, but must not be a member of the council. The mayor's auditor must be a member of the council. The treasurer must make up his accounts half yearly, and within a month of making them up must submit them with the necessary papers and vouchers to the auditors. After the second audit of the financial year the town clerk must make a return to the Local Government Board of the receipts and expenditure of the corporation for the year. The return must be sent within a month of the completion of the audit. It is

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users. It was found that the most common reason for not using a service was that it was not relevant to their needs. This was followed by the fact that the service was not easy to use. Other reasons included the fact that the service was not available at the time of need, the service was too expensive, and the service was not available in the user's language. The study also found that users were more likely to use a service if it was recommended by a friend or family member. This suggests that word-of-mouth is an important factor in the adoption of new services. The study also found that users were more likely to use a service if it was available on a mobile device. This suggests that mobile devices are becoming an important part of the user experience.

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One other point remains to be touched on, and that is the relation of boroughs to the Central Government. As we have seen, the controlling power of the Central Executive is purely negative. It can disallow certain things, such as parting with corporate property or the creation of loans on the security of the rates, but there its power of interference begins and ends. In all other matters a municipality enjoys, within the limits of the law, an unfettered liberty of action.

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1. The first of these is the 'cultural' approach, which is based on the idea that the human mind is a blank slate, and that all knowledge is derived from experience. This approach is associated with the name of John Locke, who argued that the mind is like a piece of white paper, and that all knowledge is written on it by experience.
2. The second approach is the 'biological' approach, which is based on the idea that the human mind is a product of biological processes. This approach is associated with the name of Charles Darwin, who argued that the human mind is a product of natural selection, and that all knowledge is derived from the biological processes of the brain.
3. The third approach is the 'psychological' approach, which is based on the idea that the human mind is a complex system of psychological processes. This approach is associated with the name of Sigmund Freud, who argued that the human mind is a complex system of psychological processes, and that all knowledge is derived from the psychological processes of the mind.
4. The fourth approach is the 'sociological' approach, which is based on the idea that the human mind is a product of social processes. This approach is associated with the name of Karl Marx, who argued that the human mind is a product of social processes, and that all knowledge is derived from the social processes of society.
5. The fifth approach is the 'philosophical' approach, which is based on the idea that the human mind is a product of philosophical processes. This approach is associated with the name of Immanuel Kant, who argued that the human mind is a product of philosophical processes, and that all knowledge is derived from the philosophical processes of the mind.
6. The sixth approach is the 'scientific' approach, which is based on the idea that the human mind is a product of scientific processes. This approach is associated with the name of Isaac Newton, who argued that the human mind is a product of scientific processes, and that all knowledge is derived from the scientific processes of the mind.
7. The seventh approach is the 'religious' approach, which is based on the idea that the human mind is a product of religious processes. This approach is associated with the name of Jesus Christ, who argued that the human mind is a product of religious processes, and that all knowledge is derived from the religious processes of the mind.
8. The eighth approach is the 'mystical' approach, which is based on the idea that the human mind is a product of mystical processes. This approach is associated with the name of Sri Yogi Bhaer, who argued that the human mind is a product of mystical processes, and that all knowledge is derived from the mystical processes of the mind.
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10. The tenth approach is the 'occult' approach, which is based on the idea that the human mind is a product of occult processes. This approach is associated with the name of Sri Yogi Bhaer, who argued that the human mind is a product of occult processes, and that all knowledge is derived from the occult processes of the mind.

CHAPTER VI.

THE COUNTY.

The County—History of the Shire or County—County Officers
—The Lord Lieutenant—The Sheriff—The Coroner—The
Justices—County Jurisdiction—County Finance.

FOR certain administrative purposes England is divided into counties. The term "county" is the Norman equivalent of the old Saxon "shire."¹ There is a third synonym, namely, the hybrid word "bailiwick," a term still used in legal phraseology. There are forty counties in England and twelve in Wales. In addition to the counties properly so called, there are, as we have seen, eighteen towns called "counties of cities" and "counties of towns" outside the jurisdiction of the counties within which they are situate, and which, for many purposes—chiefly in relation to the administration of justice—have themselves the organisation of a county. For parliamentary elections the counties, for the most part, have been cut up into divisions, and for electoral purposes the divisions so created are in effect distinct counties. The area of the county has no relation to any other local government area except the obsolete hundred. The boundaries of the county are intersected

¹ "Shire" means share; thus the diocese of a bishop was called his "shire."

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THEORY

1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of the use of a computer-aided design (CAD) system on the design process of a mechanical part. The study is divided into two main parts: a theoretical part and an experimental part.

The theoretical part of the study is divided into two main sections: a review of the literature and a description of the CAD system. The literature review covers the use of CAD systems in the design process, the benefits of CAD systems, and the challenges of using CAD systems. The description of the CAD system covers the system's architecture, its components, and its capabilities. The experimental part of the study is divided into two main sections: a description of the experimental setup and a description of the experimental results. The experimental setup describes the design of a mechanical part, the use of the CAD system, and the measurement of the design process. The experimental results describe the time taken to design the part, the number of iterations, and the quality of the design.

The results of the study show that the use of a CAD system significantly reduces the time taken to design a mechanical part and increases the quality of the design. The study also shows that the use of a CAD system increases the number of iterations required to design a part.

The study concludes that the use of a CAD system is a valuable tool for the design of mechanical parts. The study also suggests that further research is needed to investigate the effect of CAD systems on the design process of other types of mechanical parts.

The study is organized as follows: Chapter 1 is the introduction, Chapter 2 is the literature review, Chapter 3 is the description of the CAD system, Chapter 4 is the description of the experimental setup, Chapter 5 is the description of the experimental results, and Chapter 6 is the conclusion.

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by the boundaries of boroughs, sanitary districts, highway districts, unions, parishes, school boards, and burial boards. Counties differ much both in size and population. Rutland contains 94,889 acres and 21,000 inhabitants. Yorkshire contains 3,882,851 acres, and has a population of 2,886,000 persons. Formerly there were many liberties exempt from county jurisdiction, but under an Act of 1850 nearly all of them have now been merged and obliterated in the counties within which they were situated. Ely and the Cinque Ports, however, for many purposes still retain their old exemptions.

The division of England into shires dates as far back, at any rate, as the reign of King Edgar, though the boundaries of some of the northern counties seem to have been altered since the Conquest. In Saxon times the government of the shires was representative. The shire moot, the governing assembly, was composed of all lords of lands, and of the reeve and four selected men from each township. The presiding officers were the ealdorman, a royal nominee, and the shire-reeve or sheriff, an elected officer, who it seems generally held office for life. The functions of the shire moot or folk moot were at once administrative, legislative, and judicial. The suitors—that is, all who attended—were the judges. The power of the Central Government made itself felt but little, and the various shires were almost as independent as the different states in the United States. In early Norman times much of this independence was still preserved. The shire moot had become the county court. The royal power, however, was making itself more felt. Royal judges, the justices in eyre, made their circuits through the land, and tried the more important

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criminal and civil cases; but they tried these cases in the county assembly. The office of ealdorman was disappearing, and the chief officer was the sheriff or vicecomes, who was no longer elected, but was a nominee of the Crown and the farmer of the royal taxes, holding office for a single year only. The county court of the thirteenth century is thus described by Professor Stubbs:¹—"In its full session,—that is, as it attended the itinerant justices of the king on their visitations,—it contained the archbishops, bishops, abbots, priors, earls, barons, knights, and freeholders, and from each township four men and the reeve, and from each borough twelve burghers. It was still the folk moot, the general assembly of the people. It contained thus all the elements of a local parliament—all the members of the body politic in as full representation as the Three Estates afterwards enjoyed in Parliament. The county court sat once a month, but the monthly sessions were only attended by those who had special business. For the holding of a full county court for extraordinary business a special summons was always issued. In the county courts, and under the presidency of the sheriff, all the business of the shire was transacted, and the act of the county court was the act of the shire in matters military, judicial, and fiscal, in the details of police management, and in questions—when such questions arose—connected with the general administration of the county." From this time onwards the history of the county court is a history of decay. Its criminal jurisdiction has been taken from it and transferred either to royal commissioners—that is, the judges on circuit—or to the county justices, who are nominees of the Crown.

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the following: (1) the patient's condition, (2) the patient's wishes, (3) the patient's ability to pay, (4) the patient's ability to work, (5) the patient's ability to care for himself, (6) the patient's ability to care for his family, (7) the patient's ability to care for his property, (8) the patient's ability to care for his reputation, (9) the patient's ability to care for his health, (10) the patient's ability to care for his soul.

1. The patient's condition.

The first thing the physician should do is to determine the patient's condition. This is done by taking a history of the patient's illness, by examining the patient, and by making such other investigations as may be necessary. The physician should also determine the patient's wishes, his ability to pay, his ability to work, his ability to care for himself, his ability to care for his family, his ability to care for his property, his ability to care for his reputation, his ability to care for his health, and his ability to care for his soul.

2. The patient's wishes.

The second thing the physician should do is to determine the patient's wishes. This is done by talking to the patient and by asking him what he wants. The physician should also determine the patient's ability to pay, his ability to work, his ability to care for himself, his ability to care for his family, his ability to care for his property, his ability to care for his reputation, his ability to care for his health, and his ability to care for his soul.

3. The patient's ability to pay.

The third thing the physician should do is to determine the patient's ability to pay. This is done by asking the patient how much money he has and by asking him how much money he needs. The physician should also determine the patient's ability to work, his ability to care for himself, his ability to care for his family, his ability to care for his property, his ability to care for his reputation, his ability to care for his health, and his ability to care for his soul.

4. The patient's ability to work.

The fourth thing the physician should do is to determine the patient's ability to work. This is done by asking the patient what he does for a living and by asking him how much work he can do. The physician should also determine the patient's ability to care for himself, his ability to care for his family, his ability to care for his property, his ability to care for his reputation, his ability to care for his health, and his ability to care for his soul.

5. The patient's ability to care for himself.

The fifth thing the physician should do is to determine the patient's ability to care for himself. This is done by asking the patient how he feels and by asking him what he can do for himself. The physician should also determine the patient's ability to care for his family, his ability to care for his property, his ability to care for his reputation, his ability to care for his health, and his ability to care for his soul.

6. The patient's ability to care for his family.

The sixth thing the physician should do is to determine the patient's ability to care for his family. This is done by asking the patient how he feels about his family and by asking him what he can do for his family. The physician should also determine the patient's ability to care for his property, his ability to care for his reputation, his ability to care for his health, and his ability to care for his soul.

The judicial functions of the suitors are now represented by the jury system, which has slowly developed; and the right of the grand jury to make presentments on matters of local interest or importance is perhaps a survival of the old right of the county to approach the Crown in its corporate capacity. The civil jurisdiction of the county court has been transferred either to the High Court or to the new statutory county courts, established in 1846, whose circuits have no relation to county boundaries, and whose judges are barristers appointed by the Crown. The ancient county court presided over by the sheriff has now but few functions left. For parliamentary elections the counties have been subdivided into divisions, which, for electoral purposes, are distinct counties, and the freehold voters have been swamped by the new £12 occupiers. The county coroner is still elected in the county court; and if any one were outlawed his outlawry must be proclaimed in the county court. In theory it is still the duty of the sheriff to proclaim in the county court all new Acts passed by the Legislature. But there its functions end, and the ancient county court is but a pale shadow of its former self. In theory, in case of any sudden disturbance, the sheriff might still command all the men of the county to attend him to quell it; but practically the lord-lieutenant and the justices are reckoned the responsible guardians of public tranquillity. The *posse comitatus*, the power of the county, headed by the sheriff, exists only in name. All military tenures of land were abolished in the seventeenth century, and the modern county militia, established in the eighteenth century, has no connection with the old assembly of the county in arms, called together by the royal commission

The first part of the document discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions and activities. It emphasizes that proper record-keeping is essential for transparency and accountability, particularly in financial matters. The document outlines the various methods and tools used to collect, store, and analyze data, ensuring that all information is up-to-date and reliable.

In the second section, the focus shifts to the analysis of the collected data. This involves identifying trends, patterns, and anomalies that may indicate potential issues or opportunities. The document provides a detailed explanation of the analytical techniques employed, including statistical methods and data visualization tools, to ensure that the information is presented in a clear and accessible manner.

The third part of the document addresses the implementation of the findings. It describes the steps taken to translate the analytical results into actionable insights and recommendations. This section highlights the collaborative efforts of various departments and stakeholders to ensure that the proposed changes are effectively implemented and integrated into the organization's overall strategy.

Finally, the document concludes with a summary of the key findings and a call to action. It reiterates the importance of ongoing monitoring and evaluation to ensure that the implemented changes continue to yield positive results. The document also provides contact information for further inquiries and support, ensuring that all stakeholders have access to the necessary resources and information.

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of array. The existing judicial and police functions of the county are dealt with in another volume of this series.¹ It is only its administrative powers and duties that concern us here. The present administrative functions of the county have been created by a series of statutes ranging from Tudor times down to the present day. The body selected for the exercise of those functions is not the old county court, but the justices of the peace for the county assembled either in quarter or special sessions. The counties are subdivided into petty sessional divisions, and the special sessions are merely petty sessions called and meeting for some special purpose. The civil organisation of the modern county consists of the Lord-Lieutenant and Custos Rotulorum, the Justices and Clerk of the Peace, the Sheriff, the Coroner, the County Analyst, the County Surveyor, and the County Police.

The office of Lord-Lieutenant dates from the time of Henry VIII. He holds office under a special commission from the Crown, and is usually a peer or other large landowner. His office, says Hallam,² "may be considered as a revival of the ancient local earldom, and it certainly took away from the sheriff a great part of the dignity and importance which he had acquired since the discontinuance of that office. Yet the lord-lieutenant has so peculiarly military an authority that it does not in any degree control the civil power of the sheriff as the executive minister of the law." By an Act of 1871, however, the militia jurisdiction of the lord-lieutenant has been taken from him and revested in the Crown.

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The lord-lieutenant usually holds also the office of *custos rotulorum*, or keeper of the records. As such he is the principal justice of the county, and it devolves on him to appoint the clerk of the peace, who acts as clerk to the sessions. As connected with county administration, his main function is the recommendation of qualified persons for the office of justice of the peace. It is said that party politics are not always disregarded in considering the qualifications of persons anxious for the commission of the peace.

The office of Sheriff dates back to the time when the shires themselves were formed. As we have seen, the sheriff was formerly an elective officer; but by a statute of Edward III.¹ it is provided that "no sheriff shall tarry in his bailiwick over one year; and then another convenient shall be ordained in his place that hath land sufficient in his bailiwick by the chancellor, treasurer, and chief baron of the Exchequer, taking unto them the chief justice of the one bench and the other if they be present; and that shall be done yearly on the morrow of All Souls at the Exchequer." In accordance with this statute, the judges of the High Court and the officers of the Exchequer still meet annually and "prick" for sheriffs. The ceremony is called pricking, because a list of qualified persons is laid before the judges, and a pin prick is put opposite the names of those selected. The sheriff is an unpaid officer, and he is liable to a heavy fine if he refuses to serve. The relations of the sheriff to the ancient county court have already been discussed. His duties as returning-officer at parliamentary elections are not within the scope of this volume to describe. For-

¹ 14 Ed. III. c. 7.

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The office of Coroner is a very ancient one, dating back, at any rate, to the reign of King Alfred. It is regulated partly by common law, partly by a series of forty-nine statutes, beginning in 1275, and ending with an Act of 1882. The name is said to be derived *à coronâ*, because the coroner was originally a royal officer; but for many centuries the county coroners have been elective officers. The right of the counties to elect their own coroners is confirmed by the statute 3 Ed. I. c. 10.¹ As we have seen, municipal boroughs with quarter

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The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the research and the objectives of the study. It then presents a literature review of the existing research on the topic. The second part of the paper describes the methodology used in the study, including the data collection and analysis techniques. The third part of the paper presents the results of the study, and the fourth part discusses the implications of the findings.

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sessions elect their own coroners. There are also certain franchises and liberties which have coroners of their own, and within whose precincts the county coroner cannot act. In such places the coroner is usually appointed by the lord of the manor, but in one franchise in Cheshire the office is said to go with an hereditary horn. In a manor in Essex the tenants appoint. In another franchise the Ecclesiastical Commissioners appoint. The number of these franchise-coroners, as they are called, is said to be fifty-five. There are 175 county coroners acting for counties or divisions of counties. They are very unequally distributed over the country. Middlesex has five coroners. The little county of Huntingdon has also five; while Dorsetshire has eleven.¹ When the office of county coroner falls vacant a writ *de coronatore eligendo* issues from the Petty Bag Office, commanding the sheriff to hold an election in full county court. At the election every freeholder of the county, or division of the county for which the election is held, is entitled to vote. Any person claiming to vote may be required to declare his qualification on oath. Although the office is judicial in its nature, no professional qualification is required. The only requisite is that the candidate should possess some freehold interest in the county. A share in a freehold grave has been held sufficient. Deservedly or undeservedly, from the time of Shakspeare downwards, crowner's quest law has not been held in high estimation. The elections are often hotly contested, and as much as £10,000 or £12,000 is said to be sometimes expended on a single election. By a recent Act it is provided that the poll is not to remain open for more than one day. A

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1. **Identify the main components of the system.**
 2. **Define the scope and objectives of the study.**
 3. **Review the literature on the topic.**
 4. **Develop a methodology for data collection and analysis.**
 5. **Collect and analyze the data.**
 6. **Draw conclusions and discuss the implications of the findings.**
 7. **Write the report and present the results.**

1. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 2000; 284: 2689-2695.

1. The first part of the document discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions and activities related to the business. It emphasizes the need for transparency and accountability in financial reporting.

1. The first step is to identify the problem or question that needs to be answered. This involves understanding the context and the specific requirements of the task.

Table 1

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Age Group	Percentage (%)
18-24	~10
25-34	~15
35-44	~25
45-54	~35
55-64	~45
65-74	~55
75-84	~65
85+	~75

coroner ordinarily holds office for life, but may be removed by the Lord Chancellor for misconduct or incompetence. The fact that a coroner for one county was imprisoned in another was held sufficient to justify his removal. A county coroner is paid by salary, the amount of which is fixed by agreement between himself and the justices. It seems that the amount may be revised every five years. Provision is now made by which a county coroner may appoint a deputy to act for him in case of illness or unavoidable absence. The deputy must be either a barrister, solicitor, or medical man. The coroner is *ex officio* a justice of the peace, and he may therefore cause any person suspected of homicide to be apprehended even before the jury have found their verdict.

It was formerly the duty of the coroner to hold inquisitions concerning wrecks, treasure trove, and deodands, but this part of his jurisdiction has now become obsolete. It has only lately been decided that he has no longer power to inquire into incendiary fires. Having regard to recent conflagrations, it seems a pity that this ancient jurisdiction is not revived in some form or another. The main function of the coroner is to hold an inquest, with a jury, over the body of any person who has been killed, or who has died in prison, or who has died suddenly, if the cause of death be unknown. The inquisition must be held *super visum corporis*; that is to say, the body must be viewed both by the coroner and by the jury. The jury, which must consist of at least twelve persons, are sworn by the coroner, and are then charged to inquire how the deceased came by his death. Witnesses are examined on oath, and the coroner has power to order a post mortem examination of the body,

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and the attendance of medical witnesses. The finding of the jury is recorded on parchment, and is attested by the signatures and seals of the jury, as well as of the coroner. If on such finding or inquisition any person is found guilty of murder or manslaughter, the coroner commits him for trial, and the accused may be indicted on the inquisition without any presentment by the grand jury. As a fact, however, an independent inquiry is always held before the justices in the ordinary way, and the depositions are sent up and dealt with as if no inquest had been held. This double inquiry is of course the cause of a great deal of unnecessary expense and trouble.

The office of Justice of the Peace dates from the statute 34 Ed. III. c. 1. There is no limit to the number of justices which may be appointed in any county. A justice is appointed for the whole county; but, except in quarter sessions, he only acts in practice in the petty sessional division in which he resides. His judicial functions, though defined and limited by statute, depend ultimately on the terms of his commission. The commission now is substantially the same in form as the commission which was settled by the judges in the time of Queen Elizabeth. The administrative functions of the justices have been conferred on them by a series of statutes, and with these functions alone the present volume is concerned.¹ Justices are appointed by the Crown on the recommendation of the lord-lieutenant. They hold office for life, but may be removed for misconduct by the Lord Chancellor. The qualification is the enjoyment of an estate in possession of £100 a year,

¹ As to their judicial functions, see *Justice and Police*, by F. Pollock.

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Abstract—The purpose of this study was to determine if there were differences in the prevalence of musculoskeletal disorders among different types of workers. The study included 600 male employees from three companies who had been employed for at least one year. Data were collected by means of a self-administered questionnaire. Results showed that the prevalence of musculoskeletal disorders was higher among non-manual workers than among manual workers. This finding suggests that the risk of developing musculoskeletal disorders is greater for non-manual workers than for manual workers.

1. The first step is to identify the problem or question that needs to be answered. This involves understanding the context and the specific requirements of the task.

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The most important duty of the justices is the maintenance of the county police. Subject to confirmation by the Home Secretary, the Quarter Sessions fix the number of men and officers for the county. They appoint the chief constable, in whom are vested all the powers of the old high constables of the hundreds. The chief constable appoints the superintendents, sergeants, and men. The Treasury pays one half the cost of the pay and clothing of the police force. The cost of the county police in 1880 was about £1,000,000. The expenses are defrayed out of a special police rate, which is for the most part assessed and levied like the county rate. Provision is made for contributing boroughs and liberties, also for special districts requiring extra police. As we have already seen, the justices in quarter sessions are entrusted with the duty of forming highway districts. Under the Act of 1878 special powers are given to them to coerce defaulting highway boards who have neglected to maintain their roads in proper repair. They also hear and decide appeals from union assessment-committees. The maintenance of county bridges and shire halls specially constitutes another of their duties. Prisons have been removed from the control of the local authorities, but they are still subject to inspection by committees of visiting justices. The maintenance and management of pauper lunatic asylums is also a matter for the justices. The acting lunacy authority is

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the fact that the majority of the population is still poor and that the government has not been able to provide basic services to the people. The government has also been accused of corruption and of being a puppet of foreign interests. The people are demanding a more democratic and accountable government that will address the needs of the poor and the marginalized.

The government has responded to these demands by launching a series of reforms. It has introduced a new constitution that guarantees the rights of the people and has established a new judicial system. It has also launched a series of social and economic reforms that aim to improve the living standards of the people. However, the people are still skeptical about the government's commitment to these reforms. They believe that the government is only trying to appease them and that it will not really implement the reforms.

The government has also been accused of human rights violations. It has been reported that the government has arrested and detained people without any legal basis. It has also been accused of using force against the people. The people are demanding that the government should respect the rights of the people and should stop using force against them.

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a "committee of visitors" appointed annually by the quarter sessions out of their own number. A committee of the justices is also the local authority for the enforcement of the Contagious Diseases (Animals) Acts. The Privy Council exercises a general control over the working of the Acts. The quarter sessions also appoint the county analyst under the Sale of Food and Drugs Acts, and paid Inspectors of weights and measures under an Act of 1835. In Petty Sessions the justices appoint the overseers, and exercise their licensing jurisdiction. The laws relating to the sale of intoxicating liquors are exceedingly complicated, and the subject from every point of view is a thorny one. Music and dancing licences and theatres are also under the control of the justices.

The general expenses of the county are defrayed out of the county rate. "The county rate," says Mr. R. S. Wright, "is an assessment not on individual properties, but on the several parishes in the county. A committee of quarter sessions ascertains the total of the net rateable value of each parish, and apports the whole required amount accordingly. Precepts for the amount required from a parish are sent to the guardians of the union in which the parish is included. The guardians pay the amount to the county treasurer, and recover it by order from the overseers of the parish. The overseers raise it in the parish by poor rates."¹ The total amount of county expenditure in 1880 was rather more than £2,750,000—that is to say, about 5 per cent of the total local outlay. The Treasury subventions came to rather more than £500,000, so that rather more than £2,000,000 had to be raised out of county rates.

¹ *Memo of 1877*, p. 19.

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CHAPTER VII.

THE SANITARY DISTRICTS.

Sanitary Districts—Necessity and Province of Sanitary Legislation
—History of Sanitary Legislation—Urban Sanitary Authorities
—Local Boards—Rural Sanitary Districts and Authorities—
Port Sanitary Authorities.

FOR sanitary purposes, using the term in its widest sense, the whole of England, with the exception of the Metropolis, is divided into Sanitary Districts. A sanitary district is either rural or urban. The boundaries of the poor-law unions are the boundaries of the rural sanitary districts, and the guardians are the rural sanitary authority. The urban sanitary districts are carved out of the rural districts according to the exigencies of population. The urban sanitary authority may be either the town council of a municipal borough, the improvement commissioners of an Improvement Act district, or a local board. Take Kingston Union as an example: it contains one municipal borough, one Improvement Act district, and six local board districts, dotted about in various parts of its area. Every part of the union that is not included in one of the urban districts is under the sanitary jurisdiction of the guardians. Thus every house is under either an urban or a rural sanitary

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authority. There is no connection between the boundaries of an urban sanitary district and parish boundaries or any other area of local government. The total number of urban sanitary districts is 1006; and the total urban population is 17,500,000.

This division of the land dates from 1872. Systematic sanitary legislation in England has had but a short history—in fact, it may be said to begin with the Public Health Act of 1848. The reason is not far to seek. In the first place, owing to the pressure of population, and the rapid growth of large towns, sanitary legislation has of late years become much more urgent. In the second place, sanitary science is yet in its infancy; its laws are still empirical, and it is only quite recently that they have been recognised as laws at all. An epidemic disease is no longer looked upon as a shower of darts from some angry Apollo. It is known to be the consequence of the neglect of sanitary precautions, and the violation of sanitary laws. Of the intimate nature and causes of infectious and contagious diseases, however, we as yet know nothing for certain. Some would trace all communicable disease to a living germ or *contagium vivum*; others, like Dr. Richardson, with his glandular theory, see in dead matter the *teterrima causa* of such maladies.¹ This much is sure—that minute material particles given off from the bodies of the sick impinge upon the bodies of the sound, and set up therein a similar disease, which can in like manner be further disseminated. Experience

¹ In the case of one communicable disease (anthrax or splenic fever), the truth of the germ theory seems to have been established by the researches of Koch and Pasteur. The specific bacteria found by them appear to be the cause and not merely the concomitants of the malady; but what is one among so many?

1. The first step is to identify the problem or question that needs to be answered. This involves understanding the context and the specific requirements of the task.

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Abstract—The purpose of this study was to determine if there were differences in the prevalence of musculoskeletal disorders among different types of workers. The study included 600 male employees from three companies. Data were collected by means of a questionnaire that asked about symptoms of musculoskeletal disorders, work characteristics, and demographic information. Results showed that the prevalence of musculoskeletal disorders was higher among non-manual workers than manual workers. This result may be due to the fact that non-manual workers had more exposure to risk factors such as prolonged sitting, repetitive movements, and awkward postures.

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This division of the land dates from 1872. Systematic sanitary legislation in England has had but a short history—in fact, it may be said to begin with the Public Health Act of 1848. The reason is not far to seek. In the first place, owing to the pressure of population, and the rapid growth of large towns, sanitary legislation has of late years become much more urgent. In the second place, sanitary science is yet in its infancy ; its laws are still empirical, and it is only quite recently that they have been recognised as laws at all. An epidemic disease is no longer looked upon as a shower of darts from some angry Apollo. It is known to be the consequence of the neglect of sanitary precautions, and the violation of sanitary laws. Of the intimate nature and causes of infectious and contagious diseases, however, we as yet know nothing for certain. Some would trace all communicable disease to a living germ or *contagium vivum* ; others, like Dr. Richardson, with his glandular theory, see in dead matter the *teterrima causa* of such maladies.¹ This much is sure—that minute material particles given off from the bodies of the sick impinge upon the bodies of the sound, and set up therein a similar disease, which can in like manner be further disseminated. Experience

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has also taught us that by isolating the sick and carefully disinfecting their clothing, the spread of the disease can be effectually arrested. Science is divided on the question whether the ordinary infectious and contagious diseases, such as scarlet and enteric fever, or diphtheria, can originate *de novo* and arise spontaneously, or whether they must in all cases be communicated either mediately or immediately from the sick to the healthy. We, however, know for certain that infection is the ordinary cause of such diseases, and that if infection could be efficiently arrested, sporadic cases would be of comparatively little moment. We further know that pure air and water are the essential conditions of health, while polluted air and water are the sure forerunners of zymotic disease. Sewer gas may or may not be the cause of typhoid fever and diphtheria, but, if not in itself the cause, it is clearly an excellent vehicle for the poisons of those diseases. It is therefore essential to prevent the escape of sewer gas into our houses. The poison of typhoid fever seems capable of almost unlimited diffusion in water. A year or two ago there occurred at Caterham an outbreak of enteric fever, attacking some hundred persons and causing many deaths. A local inquiry was ordered by the Local Government Board. Dr. Thorne-Thorne's admirable investigation conclusively showed that the outbreak was caused by the accidental pollution of the water supply from a single case. Milk has been shown to have an extraordinary power of conveying the poisons of scarlet fever and diphtheria. Decaying animal and vegetable matter and the overcrowding of human beings are eminent provocatives of disease. Thus, while our know-

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ledge of actual causes is very incomplete, we know enough of the conditions of health and disease to form a series of useful working hypotheses on which to legislate and take action. The public health legislation of the last few years has almost stamped out typhus fever, a disease which formerly exacted an annual tribute of some thousand lives. Compulsory vaccination has scotched, though it has not killed, smallpox,¹ and under recent sanitary legislation the general health of the population has improved, and the expectation of life has perceptibly increased. For the years 1841-51 the death-rate was 22·23 per thousand, while the death-rate for the years 1871-81 was 21·27 per thousand. This lower death-rate implies the survival of 300,000 persons who according to the previous rate of mortality would have died.² Much, however, remains yet to be done. The individual is comparatively helpless. It is only the 'strong arm of the law and concerted action that can deal effectively with questions of public health. In 1881 the number of deaths from scarlet fever was 16,000, while 8000 persons died from enteric fever. Smallpox claimed 5000 victims. So much for the killed; but we have no list of the maimed and

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² *Census Report 1881* p. 2

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A nuisance injurious to health is indictable at common law. For instance, if a man accumulates filth on his land so as to cause a nuisance to his neighbours, he may be prosecuted criminally. The now obsolete Court's Leet seems to have exercised some control in sanitary matters. It may be noted that the court rolls of Stratford-on-Avon show that in 1552 Shakspeare's father was fined for depositing filth in the public street in violation of the bye-laws of the manor, and again in 1558 for not keeping his gutter clean. But the function of common law begins and ends with the punishment of individuals. It knows nothing of prevention or cure. It has no machinery for dealing with those insanitary conditions which the massing of human beings together in cities and towns necessarily creates, and which the individual is powerless to cope with. Here the aid of the Legis-

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lature must be invoked, and no one can complain that in the complicated problems of sanitary science we have not a *dignus vindice nodus*. The history of our public health legislation is exhaustively traced by the Royal Sanitary Commission of 1869. The first sanitary Act on the statute-book is an Act of 1388, which imposed a penalty of £20 on persons who cast animal filth and refuse into ditches and rivers. In the reign of Henry VIII. the Statute of Sewers was passed, which authorised the issue of Commissions of Sewers at the discretion of the Lord Chancellor and Lord Treasurer. The Act defined the duties of the Commissioners, which included, among other matters, the cleansing of rivers, public streams, and ditches.¹ In the seventeenth century special statutes were passed relating to the plague.

As early as the reign of George II. the more populous and wealthy towns began to seek a remedy in their individual cases by applying to Parliament for special legislation; and from that date down to the present time very numerous special Acts have been passed conferring on populous places powers of local government, pointed more directly in the earlier instances at the paving, lighting, cleansing, and improving the districts embraced in them, but recognising in all later instances the importance of sanitary regulations, and affecting to make provision accordingly.

The Lighting and Watching Act, 1833, was a step towards more general legislation. It provided for lighting and watching in parishes; enabled the ratepayers to appoint inspectors, who might contract for works; and imposed penalties for contaminating water by gas. The

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Act was permissive. The provisions might be adopted in any parish by resolution of the vestry duly convened for that purpose. There are still 194 parishes, not included in urban sanitary districts, which are partially governed under it.

In 1847 the Towns Improvement Clauses Act, the Towns Police Clauses Act, the Water-works Clauses Act, the Gasworks Clauses Act, with several similar Acts, were passed for the purpose of consolidating and generalising the provisions usually required in local Acts for various public purposes. Their object is to supply model clauses, which can be adopted by reference into local Acts. With a few exceptions their provisions have been adopted into all subsequent local legislation. There are still about fifty Improvement Act districts.

In 1848 was passed the first great and comprehensive measure—a measure which may be called the foundation-stone of our national sanitary legislation. The Public Health Act of 1848 did not apply to the Metropolis, but was intended mainly for other large towns and populous places. It created a General Board of Health, the members of which were appointed by the Crown, and they were empowered to appoint inspectors to see that the provisions of the Act were carried out. The General Board of Health were empowered to create (through the machinery of an Order in Council) local boards of health. In places where the rate of mortality was exceptionally high the Board of Health might act of its own motion; but in ordinary cases it could only act on the petition of the ratepayers. In municipal boroughs the Town Council was constituted the local board. In other places the board was elected by the ratepayers. Certain

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specified powers were conferred on all local boards, and the General Board of Health were authorised to vary local Acts by provisional order.¹ In particular, local boards were empowered to construct and manage sewers, drains, wells, water and gas-works, deposits of refuse, closets, and slaughter-houses; to regulate offensive trades, to remove nuisances, to protect water-works from pollution, to pave and regulate streets, to regulate dwellings and common lodging-houses, to provide burial and recreation grounds, and to supply public baths with water. Between 1848 and 1875 some thirty Acts were passed amending or extending the Act of 1848, but three only need be specially referred to. The Local Government Act of 1858 enabled a local board to be created by the resolution of the ratepayers of any place having a defined boundary without the intervention of the Board of Health. That Board was allowed to expire, and its remaining functions were divided between the Home Office and the Privy Council. In 1871 the public health powers of the Home Office and Privy Council were transferred to the newly-created Local Government Board. The Public Health Act of 1872 divided the country into urban and rural sanitary districts, and constituted the guardians the rural sanitary authority. Up to that date the guardians had been the authority to exercise in rural places the powers under the various Acts relating to the removal of nuisances. The vestries, on the other hand, had been the rural sewer authorities, and as such had had various other sanitary powers conferred upon them.

The Public Health Act of 1875 repealed the Act of

¹ *Second Report*, p. 8.

The first of these is the fact that the majority of the specimens are from the same locality, and the second is the fact that the majority of the specimens are from the same individual.

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specified powers were conferred on all local boards, and the General Board of Health were authorised to vary local Acts by provisional order.¹ In particular, local boards were empowered to construct and manage sewers, drains, wells, water and gas-works, deposits of refuse, closets, and slaughter-houses; to regulate offensive trades, to remove nuisances, to protect water-works from pollution, to pave and regulate streets, to regulate dwellings and common lodging-houses, to provide burial and recreation grounds, and to supply public baths with water. Between 1848 and 1875 some thirty Acts were passed amending or extending the Act of 1848, but three only need be specially referred to. The Local Government Act of 1858 enabled a local board to be created by the resolution of the ratepayers of any place having a defined boundary without the intervention of the Board of Health. That Board was allowed to expire, and its remaining functions were divided between the Home Office and the Privy Council. In 1871 the public health powers of the Home Office and Privy Council were transferred to the newly-created Local Government Board. The Public Health Act of 1872 divided the country into urban and rural sanitary districts, and constituted the guardians the rural sanitary authority. Up to that date the guardians had been the authority to exercise in rural places the powers under the various Acts relating to the removal of nuisances. The vestries, on the other hand, had been the rural sewer authorities, and as such had had various other sanitary powers conferred upon them.

The Public Health Act of 1875 repealed the Act of

¹ *Second Report*, p. 8.

1848 and twenty-nine of its amending Acts, and re-enacted them in an intelligible form. It does not apply to the Metropolis, but it forms the sanitary code of the rest of England. Two short amending Acts have been passed—one in 1878 relating to water supply in rural districts, and one in 1879 relating to burial grounds; but, with these exceptions, the law of general application relating to sanitary matters is to be found in the Act of 1875.

I. The Urban Sanitary District.

We must now proceed to describe the constitution, powers, and duties of the existing sanitary authorities as determined by that code of 1875. We need not consider separately the cases where the town council of a borough, or the Improvement Commissioners of an Improvement Act District constitute the Urban Sanitary Authority. The constitution of the town council is regulated by the Municipal Corporations Act, 1882, and that of the Improvement Commissioners by their special Acts; but as regards their powers and duties, they have, in addition to their own proper jurisdiction, all the powers and duties of an ordinary local board.¹ With this explanation we may at once proceed to deal with the Local Board as the typical urban sanitary authority.

A local board, when constituted, is a corporation having a corporate name, under which it may sue and be sued, a perpetual succession and common seal, and power to hold lands in mortmain. It may, under certain cir-

¹ By sec. 341 of the Act of 1875 the powers given by that Act are cumulative.

The first of these is the fact that the University of Chicago is a private institution. This means that it is not subject to the same regulations as public universities. For example, it does not have to follow the same rules regarding the use of federal funds. This gives the University a great deal of freedom in its operations. However, it also means that the University is not subject to the same public scrutiny as public universities. This can be a disadvantage, as it allows the University to engage in activities that might be considered controversial or unethical. For example, the University has been criticized for its involvement in the development of nuclear weapons. This has led to calls for greater transparency and accountability.

2. The University of Chicago's History

The University of Chicago was founded in 1837 as a small, private institution. It was initially known as the University of the City of Chicago. The University's early years were marked by a focus on classical education and the study of the liberal arts. However, in the late 19th century, the University began to expand its curriculum to include the natural sciences and the social sciences. This was a significant departure from its traditional focus. The University's expansion was driven by a desire to provide a more comprehensive education to its students. This led to the establishment of new departments and the hiring of new faculty. The University's reputation grew as a result of its commitment to academic excellence and its willingness to embrace new ideas. This led to the University becoming one of the leading universities in the United States.

The University of Chicago's history is a testament to its commitment to academic excellence and its willingness to embrace change. The University's early years were marked by a focus on classical education, but it was its expansion into the natural and social sciences that truly defined it. The University's reputation for academic excellence and its commitment to innovation have made it one of the most respected universities in the world.

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cumstances, be dissolved by the Local Government Board by Provisional Order. The area under the jurisdiction of a local board may likewise be altered by Provisional Order.

A local board may be created in two ways:—First, the Local Government Board may, by Provisional Order, declare that any rural district, or any part thereof, shall be constituted a local government district; and thereupon the district becomes subject to a local board, to be elected as prescribed by the Act.¹ Secondly, the owners and ratepayers of any district having a defined boundary may, under certain regulations, pass a resolution declaring it expedient that the district should be constituted a local government district. The Local Government Board may then, by a simple departmental order, constitute the district an urban sanitary district, and order the election of a local board.

When a new urban district is thus constituted, the Local Government Board defines its area, decides whether or no it shall be divided into wards, determines the number of members who shall constitute the local board, and issues regulations for the first election.

After the local government has been started by the central authority, the elections are regulated by the Act.

The persons entitled to vote are owners and ratepayers. In order that non-resident owners, whose property of course may be very much affected by the action of the board, may have their say, it is provided that owners may vote by proxy. An owner claiming to vote as such, or desiring to appoint a proxy, must send in a claim; and a register of owners and proxies is directed

¹ Act of 1875, sec. 271.

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1. The first step is to identify the problem or question that needs to be answered. This involves understanding the context and the specific requirements of the task.

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the
 Journal of Management Education in the field of management
 education. It highlights the journal's role in providing
 a platform for the dissemination of research findings and
 the advancement of the discipline. The second part of the
 paper focuses on the journal's commitment to diversity and
 inclusion, emphasizing the need for a more equitable and
 inclusive research agenda. The third part of the paper
 discusses the journal's efforts to promote the use of
 research in management education, highlighting the
 importance of evidence-based practice. The fourth part of
 the paper discusses the journal's commitment to
 transparency and accountability, emphasizing the need for
 open access and the sharing of research data. The fifth
 part of the paper discusses the journal's commitment to
 the future of management education, highlighting the
 need for innovation and the development of new
 research paradigms. The final part of the paper
 discusses the journal's commitment to the management
 education community, highlighting the need for
 collaboration and the sharing of resources.

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1. **Identify the main topic of the text.**
 2. **Summarize the main points of the text.**
 3. **Identify the author's purpose.**
 4. **Identify the target audience.**
 5. **Identify the main argument.**
 6. **Identify the supporting evidence.**
 7. **Identify the conclusion.**
 8. **Identify the main idea.**
 9. **Identify the main theme.**
 10. **Identify the main message.**

[illegible]

to be kept. If an owner be resident, he is entitled to vote both as owner and as occupying ratepayer. The system of plural voting prevails. Each owner and ratepayer has from one to six votes, according to the rateable value of his property. A resident owner may vote both as owner and ratepayer, so that, if his property be sufficient, he may have as many as twelve votes.¹ A corporation, though it pays rates, has no vote.

In order to be eligible as a member of a local board the candidate must reside in or within seven miles of the district, and must possess the required property qualification. The qualification varies according to the population of the district. If the district contains less than 20,000 inhabitants, the property qualification is £500, or a ratable of £15. If the district contains more than 20,000 inhabitants, the property qualification is £1000, or a ratable of £30. Bankruptcy is a disqualification.

Members of the local board hold office for three years, one-third going out every year by rotation. Retiring members are re-eligible. The members of the board elect their own chairman, and are unpaid.

The chairman of the board is the returning-officer for elections. He must so make his arrangements that the election may be completed before the 15th of April in each year. He also acts as revising-officer for the purpose of revising the register of owners and proxies.

Candidates must be nominated in writing. If there

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are more candidates than vacancies, the contest is conducted by voting papers. Voting papers in the prescribed form are left at the address in the district of each person entitled to vote. Three days afterwards the appointed persons call for the voting papers and deliver them to the returning-officer, who counts them up and declares the result. The candidates may be present at the counting. There is no special machinery for deciding disputes, so that the only way of impeaching the result of an election is by recourse to a court of law. The returning-officer is entitled to his expenses, and a reasonable sum may be voted to him as remuneration for his trouble.

If a casual vacancy occurs it is filled up by the remaining members of the board by co-optation.

The board has power to provide itself with offices, and to appoint and pay clerks and other necessary officers. It must have a clerk, a surveyor, and a treasurer.

The sanitary officers of the board are two in number—namely, the Medical Officer of Health and the Inspector of Nuisances.

The medical officer of health, who must be a qualified medical practitioner, is the sanitary adviser of the board. His duty is to attend their meetings when required, to advise them as to their sanitary bye-laws, to keep them informed as to the health of their district, and to bring to their attention anything defective in their arrangements, or any threatenings of an approaching epidemic. He supervises the proceedings of the inspector, or inspectors of nuisances; and he may also himself exercise the powers of an inspector of nuisances. It is further

The following table shows the results of the regression analysis for the dependent variable "Number of children in the household" (N = 1,000). The independent variables are "Age of the head of household" and "Gender of the head of household". The table includes the coefficient estimates, standard errors, t-statistics, and p-values for each variable.

Variable	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-statistic	p-value
Age of the head of household	0.05	0.02	2.50	0.01
Gender of the head of household (Male = 1, Female = 0)	-0.10	0.03	-3.33	0.00
Constant	1.50	0.10	15.00	0.00

The regression results indicate that the number of children in the household is positively related to the age of the head of household and negatively related to the gender of the head of household. Specifically, for every one-year increase in the age of the head of household, the number of children in the household increases by 0.05, holding all other variables constant. Conversely, for every one-unit increase in the gender variable (from female to male), the number of children in the household decreases by 0.10, holding all other variables constant.

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The inspector of nuisances is appointed and paid by the board. It is his duty to search out and report upon all nuisances in the district prejudicial to health, and, under instructions, to take proceedings for their abatement. He also reports to the medical officer of health. A new and important function is that of procuring samples of food for analysis by the public analyst. It may be noted that private individuals, on payment of a small fee, are entitled to have any drug or article of food analysed in like manner.

The functions of the board may be divided into—(a) legislative and (b) administrative functions.

The power to make bye-laws would probably attach to a local board by virtue of its being a territorial corporation,¹ but the Act has specially provided for the point. A local board may make bye-laws for the purpose of carrying out the provisions of the Public Health

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The administrative functions of a local board are either sanitary or general. In the exercise of its sanitary powers it may purchase and construct sewers, and may provide a map of its sewer system. The sewers of the district vest in the board. It must keep its sewers so cleansed and ventilated as not to be a nuisance. It has power to make owners of houses drain into its sewers if the houses be within 100 feet of the sewer; and no new house may be built in the district without being properly drained to the satisfaction of the surveyor. Houses more than 100 feet from the sewer may drain into cesspools. There are special powers to enable local boards to start and maintain works for disinfecting sewage, or otherwise disposing of it, so as not to create a nuisance. By leave of the Local Government Board adjoining urban districts may unite and work together in sewage schemes. Local boards may either undertake themselves, or contract for, the scavenging and cleaning of the houses and streets in their district. If in any house there has been infectious disease, or if any dwelling is in a filthy condition, the local board may, on the certificate of their medical officer of health, require it to

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Variable	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-statistic	p-value
Age of the head of household	0.001	0.001	1.2	0.23
Gender of the head of household (Male = 1, Female = 0)	-0.05	0.03	-1.5	0.13
Constant	1.5	0.2	7.5	<0.001

The regression results indicate that the number of children in the household is positively related to the age of the head of household, although the relationship is not statistically significant at the 5% level. The gender of the head of household is also not statistically significant.

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Where a district is not already supplied with water by some water company with statutory powers, the local board may undertake the water supply. In such case the board may either supply water by measure, charging according to quantity, or may recoup itself by a water-rate. If the surveyor reports that any house has not a proper water supply, the board may compel the householder to take a supply from them. There is also power to the board to purchase or lease the works of existing water companies. In connection with water supply the local board is bound also to supply fire-plugs.

The local board has ample powers for the regulation of cellar-dwellings and common lodging-houses, and the Local Government Board may, under certain conditions, empower the local board to make bye-laws regulating any houses let in lodgings although not common lodging-houses. The jurisdiction of the board to prevent and abate nuisances is extensive. It further has power to prevent offensive or noxious trades, such as soap-boiling or tallow-melting, from being established without its consent, and to regulate them when allowed.

The powers of sanitary authorities for dealing with infectious diseases are not so large as they ought to be, and those that they have are not sufficiently used. A person who, while suffering from an infectious disease,

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The powers of sanitary authorities for dealing with infectious diseases are not so large as they ought to be, and those that they have are not sufficiently used. A person who, while suffering from an infectious disease,

wilfully exposes himself in the streets or in any other public place, or who gets into a public conveyance without warning the driver, is liable to a penalty not exceeding £5. Practically, proceedings are never taken to enforce this provision, yet such a person probably is as dangerous to his neighbours as if he were to shut his eyes and then fire off a pistol at random in the street. The inclination at present is to pity rather than to blame him. If the infectious particles that he discharges only made a noise, or could be rendered visible, his conduct would be viewed in a very different light. The local board may provide mortuaries, but there is no power to order the body of a person who has died of an infectious disease to be removed to the mortuary, unless there are other persons actually living or sleeping in the same room, and even then the procedure is complicated and requires the intervention of a justice of the peace. Surely in no case ought the body of a person who dies of an infectious disease to be kept in a dwelling-house more than a few hours. As it is the blinds are pulled down, the windows closed, and all the surroundings predispose towards a spread of the disease. The local board may order infected clothing to be burned, making compensation to the owners. It may also order a house to be disinfected; but these powers are not of much use without systematic provision for the notification of infectious disease to the local authority. In twenty-three towns clauses have been introduced into their special Acts, making notification of infectious disease compulsory on the medical man in attendance. The plan seems to work well. In places where it has not been tried medical men are said to be opposed to the duty of notifying

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The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the research and the objectives of the study. It then presents a literature review of the existing research on the topic. The second part of the paper describes the methodology used in the study, including the data collection and analysis techniques. The third part of the paper presents the results of the study, and the fourth part discusses the conclusions and implications of the findings.

being cast on the doctor. They urge that it should be made the duty of the householder. But as it is the doctor and not the householder who has to decide whether the patient is suffering from nettle rash or scarlet fever, from measles or from smallpox, the doctor seems to the lay mind to be the proper person to notify. Printed forms should of course be provided, and he should be entitled to a small fee to cover postage and to remunerate him for his trouble. Again, where the public are invited into houses where there is a case of infectious disease, it ought to be made compulsory to give a warning. Take the case of a shop. If the householder chooses to keep a case of infectious disease—say smallpox—in a dwelling-house communicating with the shop, ought he not to be compelled to put up a warning, so that his customers might come in or stay out with their eyes open and at their own risk? The case of a private house of course stands on a different footing from a house into which the public are invited to enter. We know that scarlet fever can infect milk to an almost unlimited extent. If a milkman chooses to keep a case of scarlet fever in his house instead of sending it to hospital, ought he not temporarily to be stopped from supplying milk which may spread the disease right and left? The local board has power to construct and maintain hospitals, and two or more local authorities may have a joint hospital. There is also power to recover expenses from patients who are not paupers; but this latter provision is believed to be a dead letter. Every inducement should be held out to induce persons of the better classes to avail themselves of hospital accommodation when suffering from infectious disease. A well-to-do man is just as infectious

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as a poor man, and it is only the very rich who can afford to take such precautions as render the spread of infection impossible. What seems requisite is the adoption by local authorities of the system which works so well at the London Fever Hospital. The rule there is that every patient must contribute something towards his expenses ; but the committee, in special cases, have power to remit or reduce the fee. Many a man who in sickness does not wish to be dependent on charity is able and willing to pay something, and thus preserve his self-respect, but he cannot afford the whole cost of an infectious illness. A person who, under these circumstances, goes into a hospital benefits two parties—namely, himself and the public. The patient gets the benefit of hospital appliances and nursing ; the public is protected from the risk of infection. It is only fair that each party benefited should contribute towards the expenses. The London Fever Hospital also provides private rooms for patients who are willing to pay a fee which covers the cost of the case. It receives about 1000 cases a year, but there are certainly not less than 25,000 cases of scarlet fever alone in London every year. The system, therefore, must be largely extended before much impression can be made on the general prevalence of infectious disease. Private enterprise can do but little, but local authorities might do much. An institution which rests on so sound a principle as helping those who are trying to help themselves does not appeal strongly to the benevolent public, who greatly prefer sentimental and indiscriminate charity.

Turning from the sanitary to the more general functions of urban authorities, we find that the local board

Abstract

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as a poor man, and it is only the very rich who can afford to take such precautions as render the spread of infection impossible. What seems requisite is the adoption by local authorities of the system which works so well at the London Fever Hospital. The rule there is that every patient must contribute something towards his expenses ; but the committee, in special cases, have power to remit or reduce the fee. Many a man who in sickness does not wish to be dependent on charity is able and willing to pay something, and thus preserve his self-respect, but he cannot afford the whole cost of an infectious illness. A person who, under these circumstances, goes into a hospital benefits two parties—namely, himself and the public. The patient gets the benefit of hospital appliances and nursing ; the public is protected from the risk of infection. It is only fair that each party benefited should contribute towards the expenses. The London Fever Hospital also provides private rooms for patients who are willing to pay a fee which covers the cost of the case. It receives about 1000 cases a year, but there are certainly not less than 25,000 cases of scarlet fever alone in London every year. The system, therefore, must be largely extended before much impression can be made on the general prevalence of infectious disease. Private enterprise can do but little, but local authorities might do much. An institution which rests on so sound a principle as helping those who are trying to help themselves does not appeal strongly to the benevolent public, who greatly prefer sentimental and indiscriminate charity.

Turning from the sanitary to the more general functions of urban authorities, we find that the local board

has the management of all streets and highways within its district. It is *ex officio* the surveyor of highways, and may exercise any powers which a vestry could exercise outside the district. It may make new roads and regulate the width and paving of new streets, and may make regulations to which all new buildings or houses in the district must conform. It may name or rename and renumber streets ; it may put up clocks in public places ; it may provide public walks and recreation grounds, and may establish markets, charging stallage rents to the vendors who use them.

If there be no gas company in the place, it may contract for or itself undertake the supply of gas both for streets and private houses. It may also buy out existing gas companies. It may make rules for the prevention of fires and the regulation of hackney carriages. It may establish cemeteries, and make bye-laws for their management.

All these miscellaneous functions involve of course very considerable expenditure. The expenditure is of two kinds—namely, expenditure benefiting particular inhabitants, and expenditure benefiting the inhabitants of the district generally. To meet these two classes of expenditure two different methods are provided. The expenses of works of the first class,—as, for instance, the expenses of putting house drains in order, or connecting them with the urban authorities' sewers, or paving a private street,—are directed to be borne by the owners or householders themselves. If the board does the work it may recover the money expended from the householder. Where the outlay is heavy, the board for the most part has a discretion to declare the expenditure to

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Expenditure which relates to the inhabitants generally is met out of the general-district fund. Into that fund go the receipts from market-tolls, loans, and the general-district rates. The general-district rate must be made by the board under their common seal. It may be made from time to time as occasion requires, and "may be made and levied either prospectively, in order to raise money for the payment of future charges and expenses, or retrospectively, in order to raise money for the payment of charges and expenses incurred at any time within six months before the making of the rate." The district rate is assessable on all property assessable to the poor rate, and is to be assessed "on the full net annual value of such property."¹ The poor-law valuation is usually taken as the basis. Occupiers not owners are the persons generally rated; but the local board may, if it choose, rate the owner instead of the occupier where the annual value of the premises does not exceed £10, and the premises are let out to weekly or monthly tenants. The rates may be inspected by any person interested, and before making a rate it is the duty of the local board to prepare an estimate showing the total amount required, the value of the assessable property, and the amount of rate per pound. There are some complicated provisions about highway rates in certain circum-

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The rural sanitary district, as we have seen, consists of all that part of the area of a union which is not included in any urban district. The guardians acting for the parishes situate in that area are the Rural Sanitary

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Authority. If a parish is partly in an urban, partly in a rural district, the Local Government Board decides whether its guardians shall act in the rural authority or not. The total number of rural sanitary districts is 577, and, according to the Census Returns of 1881, they contain a population of about 8,500,000.

In rural places sanitary problems are for the most part less pressing than in thickly-populated towns; consequently the normal powers of the rural authority are much less extensive than those of its urban kinsmen. Speaking broadly, a rural authority has much the same powers as an urban authority in respect of sewerage and drainage, water-supply, and the inspection and abatement of nuisances. Its powers as regards water-supply have been largely increased by the Public Health Act of 1878. It has not the powers of an urban authority in respect of lighting, highways, streets, public baths, or recreation grounds. The Local Government Board may, however, confer on a rural authority all or any of the powers of an urban authority. The sanitary officers in a rural district are the same as in an urban district.

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III. *The Port Sanitary Authority.*

Besides the ordinary urban and rural authorities, there are forty-one port sanitary authorities. The Port Sanitary Authority has jurisdiction over all waters within the limits of the port and such portions of the surrounding land as are specified by the provisional order which creates the port authority.

The Local Government Board, by provisional order, may constitute any local sanitary authority whose district forms part of or abuts on any port, or any conservators or commissioners having jurisdiction over such port, the sanitary authority for the port.

Where there are two or more riparian authorities having jurisdiction within any port the Local Government Board may, if it thinks fit, combine them by provisional order, and constitute them the sanitary authority. In such case the provisional order must either prescribe the mode of their joint action or must provide for the formation of a joint board.

The constituting order may assign to the port sanitary authority all or any of the rights, Powers, and duties possessed by local authorities under the Public Health Act, 1875. It must further direct the mode in which the expenses of the port authority are to be paid.

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CHAPTER VIII.

THE SCHOOL DISTRICT.

National Education—Elementary Schools—School Districts—
School Boards—School-Attendance Committees.

FOR purposes of elementary education England and Wales are parcelled out into School Districts. This division of the land dates from Mr. Forster's Elementary Education Act of 1870, which may be regarded as the charter of national education. That Act has been several times amended by subsequent statutes, but only for the purpose of supplementing and working out the details of the original scheme. Prior to 1870 primary education was recognised as an object of public utility. Building grants and annual grants out of public money were made in favour of voluntary schools which reached a certain standard of efficiency. But Mr. Forster's Act first recognised and gave effect to the principle that it is the duty of the State to see that every citizen receives the primary elements of an education. The execution of this public duty is entrusted to local authorities under the superintendence of the Education Department of the Privy Council. When the Act of 1870 came into operation the chief element of controversy

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First, It is declared to be the duty of the parent of every child to cause such child to receive efficient elementary instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic. The term “parent” is defined so as to include every person standing towards a child *in loco parentis*, and has been held to apply to a maiden aunt.

Secondly, The Acts make it the duty of the Education Department to see that in every school district there shall be an adequate supply of public school accommodation to meet the wants of the inhabitants. In order that the necessary information may be obtained, the various local authorities are required to furnish returns to the Education Department, and there is also power for the Department to hold independent inquiries.

Thirdly, If in the opinion of the Education Department there is not a sufficient supply of public-school accommodation in any school district, it is the duty of the local authority to supply it.

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The machinery by which these various duties are enforced is as follows :²—The country is mapped out into school districts, and a school authority is provided for each district.

The whole of the Metropolis constitutes one school district, and the local board district of Oxford constitutes the school district for that city. The borough of Wenlock is treated as a parish ; but with these exceptions, the rest of England and Wales is mapped out into school districts on the following plan :—Every borough under the Municipal Corporation Acts constitutes a school district. Every parish not included in a borough also constitutes a school district. Where a parish is partly within and partly without a borough, the part outside is treated as a separate parish, and constitutes a school district. The Education Department has power to unite school districts, and then the united district thus formed is treated as an ordinary school district.

The local education authority in a school district may be either a School Board or a School-Attendance Committee. Every school district must be under either one or the other.

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If the Education Department, after inquiry, find that there is not sufficient public school accommodation, they must notify the local authorities of the fact, and require them to supply it. If, after the expiration of six months, the local authorities have neglected to provide the required accommodation, the Education Department must cause a school board to be created for the district.

A school board may in any case be created on the application of the persons locally interested. In the case of a borough the application must be made by the town council; in any other case the application must be made by the persons on whom it would devolve to elect the school board. The opinion of the electors must be taken in a meeting duly convened for the purpose. The meeting is called by the clerk to the guardians on the application of fifty ratepayers. If the resolution be negatived, it cannot be proposed again for a year.

The Education Department have power, under certain conditions and circumstances, to dissolve a school board.

At a school-board election every ratepayer is entitled to vote. He has as many votes as there are members to be elected, and he may distribute his votes as he pleases,—that is to say, if he likes he may give the whole of his votes to one candidate.

The mode of conducting elections is under the control of the Education Department. By the regulations of that Department the nominations of candidates are to be in writing, and when there is a contest the poll is to

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The following table shows the results of the regression analysis for the dependent variable "Number of children in the household" (N = 1,000). The independent variables are "Age of the head of household" and "Gender of the head of household". The table includes the coefficient estimates, standard errors, t-statistics, and p-values for each variable.

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Variable	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-statistic	p-value
Age of the head of household	0.001	0.001	1.2	0.23
Gender of the head of household (Male = 1, Female = 0)	-0.05	0.03	-1.5	0.13
Constant	1.5	0.2	7.5	<0.001

The regression results indicate that the number of children in the household is positively related to the age of the head of household, although the relationship is not statistically significant at the conventional levels. The gender of the head of household is negatively related to the number of children, but this relationship is also not statistically significant.

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be taken according to the provisions of the Ballot Act, 1872, applicable to a municipal election. The returning-officer in a borough is the mayor, or, if it be divided into wards, one of the aldermen of the ward. In rural districts the clerk to the guardians is the returning-officer.

When first a school board is elected, the number of members is fixed by the Education Department, but afterwards it may be such as the school board, with the approval of the Education Department, may determine. No qualification has been fixed for membership of a school board. The members of a school board hold office for three years, and then all retire together. Retiring members are eligible for re-election. In the case of any dispute as to the election of a member, the Education Department may determine the question. If a casual vacancy occurs, the remaining members of the board may elect a person to fill up the vacancy. The school board is a body corporate, with a common seal, perpetual succession, and the power to hold lands in mortmain. The members of the board elect their own chairman, and minutes of their proceedings signed by him are evidence.

A school board may appoint a clerk, a treasurer, and teachers. These officers hold office during the pleasure of the board, and receive such salaries as the board may assign to them.

The board may make bye-laws for the purpose of enforcing the attendance of children at school, and may appoint an officer to aid in carrying the bye-laws into effect. Another mode of compelling attendance is by school-attendance orders, made by the justices on the

No.	NAME OF THE PERSON	AGE
1	[Illegible Name]	[Illegible Age]
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The school board may, with the consent of the Education Department, provide an office for themselves; and it is their duty to provide such school accommodation as the Department may require them to provide. If the school board make default, the Education Department may, after due notice, appoint a committee to act in their place, until the requirements of the Department have been complied with. The expenses of the school board are defrayed out of the school fund.

All monies received by the school board go into the school fund. The sources from which that fund is supplied are—(1) Fees paid by children; (2) Parliamentary grants in aid of building or permanent improvements; (3) Loans; and (4) The school rate.

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1. The first step is to identify the problem or question that needs to be answered. This involves understanding the context and the specific requirements of the task.

2. Next, gather relevant information and data. This may involve research, consultation with experts, or collecting data from various sources.

3. Once the information is gathered, it is important to analyze it carefully. This involves identifying patterns, trends, and potential solutions.

4. After analysis, a plan or strategy should be developed. This plan should outline the steps that need to be taken to solve the problem or answer the question.

5. The final step is to implement the plan and evaluate the results. This involves carrying out the steps outlined in the plan and then assessing the outcomes to see if they meet the requirements.

Abstract

The following table shows the results of the regression analysis for the dependent variable "Number of children in the household" (N = 1,000). The independent variables are "Age of the head of household" and "Gender of the head of household". The table includes the coefficient estimates, standard errors, t-statistics, and p-values for each variable.

Variable	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-statistic	p-value
Age of the head of household	0.05	0.02	2.50	0.01
Gender of the head of household (Male = 1, Female = 0)	-0.10	0.03	-3.33	0.00
Constant	1.50	0.10	15.00	0.00

The regression results indicate that the number of children in the household is positively related to the age of the head of household and negatively related to the gender of the head of household. Specifically, for every one-year increase in the age of the head of household, the number of children in the household increases by 0.05, holding all other variables constant. Conversely, for every one-unit increase in the gender variable (from female to male), the number of children in the household decreases by 0.10, holding all other variables constant.

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child's fees, and the Guardians have a further power of paying the fees where the parents cannot afford them.

The difference between fees and expenditure is made up by a rate. The school board deliver to the rating authority a precept for the amount required. In boroughs the rate is levied as part of the borough rate, and in parishes outside boroughs as part of the poor rate. In the year 1881 the amount raised by rates was £1,500,000, while the amount derived from fees was £370,000. More than three-fourths of the expenses were therefore contributed by the rates.

School-board accounts are required to be made out in such form as the Local Government Board may direct. They must be made up and balanced half yearly or yearly, as may be directed, and the chairman must sign the balance-sheet. They are then audited by the Poor Law Auditor, who is an official of the Local Government Board. An appeal lies from his decision to that Board. After the audit the balance-sheet must be sent to the Education Department and the rating authorities. Any ratepayer is entitled to a copy on paying a fee of sixpence. There are now 2051 school boards.

In places where there is no school board the school authority is the School-Attendance Committee. That committee consists in effect of a sub-committee of some previously existing local authority. The school attendance committees are appointed annually, and must consist of not less than six nor more than twelve members. In the case of a borough the council must appoint the school-attendance committee out of the members of the council. In the case of an urban sanitary district, with a population of not less than five thousand, the sanitary

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Date	Description	Amount
	To Balance	100.00
	By Cash	50.00
	By Cash	25.00
	By Cash	15.00
	By Cash	10.00
	By Cash	5.00
	By Cash	5.00
	By Cash	5.00
	By Cash	5.00
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If a school-attendance committee make default in the performance of its duties, the Education Department may appoint persons for a specified period, not exceeding two years, to perform the duty of the committee. The persons so appointed may be remunerated, and the expense incurred may be recovered from the town council or guardians, as the case may be.

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CHAPTER IX.

THE HIGHWAY AREAS—BURIAL AREAS, ETC.

Highway Areas—Highways and Main Roads—Highway Parishes—
Highway Districts and Boards—Urban Highways—Sanitary
District Cemeteries—Burial Boards Cemeteries—Miscellaneous
Areas.

I. *Highway Areas.*

A HIGHWAY, as defined by Blackstone, is a public road which all subjects of the realm are entitled to use. The main Highway Areas are three in number—(1) the highway parish ; (2) the highway district ; and (3) the urban sanitary district. The first two are rural authorities. This classification is not exhaustive, because the six counties of South Wales have a special highway organisation of their own under Acts of 1844 and 1860. The Isle of Wight has its special constitution ; and the Metropolis, of course, is excluded from the operation of the general Acts. There are, too, other places and towns which have special Acts, varying or adding to the general highway powers.

Highways are of two kinds—namely, ordinary highways and main roads. The distinction—in substance though not in name—was created by the various Turn-

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I. *Highway Areas.*

A HIGHWAY, as defined by Blackstone, is a public road which all subjects of the realm are entitled to use. The main Highway Areas are three in number—(1) the highway parish ; (2) the highway district ; and (3) the urban sanitary district. The first two are rural authorities. This classification is not exhaustive, because the six counties of South Wales have a special highway organisation of their own under Acts of 1844 and 1860. The Isle of Wight has its special constitution ; and the Metropolis, of course, is excluded from the operation of the general Acts. There are, too, other places and towns which have special Acts, varying or adding to the general highway powers.

Highways are of two kinds—namely, ordinary highways and main roads. The distinction—in substance though not in name—was created by the various Turn-

THEORY OF THE EARTH

THE EARTH AND ITS HISTORY

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pike Acts which began to be passed in the last century, but which of late years have been discontinued. It is clearly right that the arterial roads through which the main traffic of the country flows should be put on a different footing from the roads which only serve certain small areas. Under the Turnpike Acts the control of the roads to which they applied was vested in trustees, who were empowered to defray their expenses by collecting tolls. In theory nothing could be fairer than the system of paying road expenses by taxing those who use the roads in exact proportion to the use they make of them. In practice the system is both annoying and costly. Mr. Dodson has described it as "the most extravagant mode of maintaining roads which the ingenuity of man or fiend could devise."¹ The turnpike trusts are now expiring fast, and no one has a good word for the moribunds. In 1864 there were 1048 trusts, comprising 20,000 miles of road. In 1882 there were only 105 trusts, comprising 3000 miles of road. In 1893 the last toll will have been collected. Until 1878, when a road was disturnpiked, it became an ordinary highway; but by the Act of that year it was provided that all roads disturnpiked after 1870 should be deemed to be main roads. In the case of main roads, one half of the expenses is to be repaid by the county to the highway authority if the road is repaired and maintained to the satisfaction of the county surveyor. The Act further provides that the county authority—that is to say, the justices in quarter sessions—may declare any highway to be a main road, or, on the other hand, may apply to the Local Government Board for a provisional order declaring

¹ Hansard, vol. cclx. pp. 64.

The American Medical Association is a non-profit corporation organized for the purpose of promoting the interests of the medical profession and the public. It is composed of members who are physicians and surgeons, and who are engaged in the practice of medicine and surgery. The Association is organized into various departments and committees, and it is the duty of its members to support and maintain the same.

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1. The highway parish may be defined as "any parish, township, or place maintaining its own highways, or which would maintain its own highways if it were not included in a highway district or an urban sanitary district."¹ The total number of highway parishes is not known, but the number of highway parishes maintaining their own roads is 5804. It is to be noted that the highway parish does not necessarily coincide with the poor-law parish. By custom a particular township or hamlet which is part of a poor-law parish may for highway purposes be a separate parish. For instance, in Shropshire there are 740 highway parishes, while there are only 224 poor-law parishes; and in one district of Cumberland there are 66 highway to 36 poor-law parishes. At common law the duty of maintaining and repairing highways lay upon the parish. If the inhabitants of the parish neglected this duty they might be indicted. This general rule was subject to two exceptions, which are still preserved—first, a particular individual might be bound *ratione tenuræ* to repair the public roads passing through his property; and secondly, a particular individual, or even a hamlet, might *ratione tenuræ* be exempt from the general duty. The Highway Act of 1835 adopts the common law for its basis, and provides the machinery by which the parish may perform its duties. The vestry must appoint a surveyor, who holds office for a year, and is liable to a penalty if he refuses to act. The vestry may, if they think fit, vote him a salary, and

¹ *Report of Lords' Committee on Highways*, p. vi.

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he may appoint a deputy. By leave of the vestry the surveyor may appoint a collector. It is the duty of the surveyor to see that the roads are properly maintained, and with the sanction of the vestry he may enter into contracts for their repair. It is also his duty to assess and levy the necessary highway rate. If the vestry makes default in appointing a surveyor, the justices must appoint some person to the office. In parishes where the population exceeds 5000, the vestry may appoint a board to discharge their functions in respect of highways. This board is in effect a committee of the vestry. There are now, it seems, nine such boards.

2. Under Acts of 1862 and 1864, power was given to the quarter sessions to combine parishes into highway districts. In the exercise of these powers 366 highway districts, comprising about 8000 highway parishes, have been created.¹ The organisation provided by these Acts consists of a district highway board, composed of the justices resident in the district, and of way wardens elected by the several combined parishes. The board must appoint a treasurer, a clerk, and a district surveyor, and it may appoint an assistant surveyor. The functions of the board correspond with those of the vestry and surveyor in a highway parish. The expenses are borne partly by a common fund, partly by the different parishes. "The common fund," says Mr. R. S. Wright, "is formed by contributions in proportion to the poor-law valuations of the several parishes. The amount of the contribution so due from a parish and that of its separate charges for its own roads are levied by a precept. If the parish is

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By the Highways Act, 1878, it is enacted that where the area of a highway district coincides with the area of a rural sanitary district, the rural sanitary authority—that is to say, the guardians—may apply to the county authority to have the control of the highways transferred to them. If the justices make the order, the guardians thereupon supersede the district board and become the highway authority. It is not known in how many cases this provision has taken effect.

To sum up—In rural districts the highway area may be either a highway parish or a highway district; and the highway authority may be a parish surveyor, a parish board, a district board, or the guardians. All rural highway accounts are now audited by the Local Government Board. The total expenditure for the year 1881 was £1,854,000.¹

3. In urban sanitary districts the urban sanitary authority is also the highway authority. The urban authority, as we have seen, may be a town council, or a local board, or improvement commissioners. Their powers over streets and roads have already been referred to.

II. *The Burial District.*

The laws relating to the provision of burial grounds are at present exceedingly complicated. The common-law right of burial in the parish churchyard has been

¹ *Report of Local Government Board*, p. cxxxii.

[illegible]

Abstract

1. The first step is to identify the problem or question that needs to be answered. This involves understanding the context and the specific requirements of the task.

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1. The first step is to identify the problem or question that needs to be answered. This involves understanding the context and the specific requirements of the task.

Response	Percentage
U.S. should take action	65%
U.S. should not take action	15%
U.S. should take action but not at the expense of the economy	15%
U.S. should not take action but at the expense of the economy	5%

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not a poor-law parish, the precept goes to the way wardens, and the amount is raised by them by a separate highway rate. In other cases the precept goes to the overseers, and they pay out of the poor rate."

By the Highways Act, 1878, it is enacted that where the area of a highway district coincides with the area of a rural sanitary district, the rural sanitary authority—that is to say, the guardians—may apply to the county authority to have the control of the highways transferred to them. If the justices make the order, the guardians thereupon supersede the district board and become the highway authority. It is not known in how many cases this provision has taken effect.

To sum up—In rural districts the highway area may be either a highway parish or a highway district; and the highway authority may be a parish surveyor, a parish board, a district board, or the guardians. All rural highway accounts are now audited by the Local Government Board. The total expenditure for the year 1881 was £1,854,000.¹

3. In urban sanitary districts the urban sanitary authority is also the highway authority. The urban authority, as we have seen, may be a town council, or a local board, or improvement commissioners. Their powers over streets and roads have already been referred to.

II. *The Burial District.*

The laws relating to the provision of burial grounds are at present exceedingly complicated. The common-law right of burial in the parish churchyard has been

¹ *Report of Local Government Board*, p. cxxxii.

already adverted to. As population has increased, parish churchyards have become insufficient to meet the requirements of the parish. In towns, moreover, churchyards are frequently ordered to be closed for sanitary reasons. When the parish churchyard is no longer accessible, provision is made for the burial of the dead in three ways :—

First, there are cemeteries made and maintained as commercial undertakings under special Acts of Parliament. These undertakings were sufficiently numerous, even in 1847, to make it expedient to pass the Cemeteries Clauses Act, which contains a series of model clauses for adoption into the special Acts.

Secondly, by an Act of 1879, the provisions of the Cemeteries Clauses Act, 1847, are incorporated into the Public Health Act. The effect of this is, that any sanitary authority may now make and maintain a cemetery for its own district,¹ and exercise all the powers given by the Act of 1847. A cemetery may therefore now be provided for a borough, an Improvement Act district, a local board district, or the extra-urban parts of a union.

Thirdly, burial grounds may be provided under a series of eleven Acts, extending from 1852 to 1875, commonly known as the "Burial Acts." Any parish or township may adopt the provisions of these Acts, and as a fact 552 burial boards have been constituted under them. The burial board is elected by the vestry. It must consist of from three to nine ratepayers of the parish. The members hold office for three years, one-third retiring annually. As vacancies occur, the board

¹ The cemetery for the district may, in certain cases, be situated outside the district.

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[illegible]

1. The first step is to identify the problem or question that needs to be answered. This involves understanding the context and the specific requirements of the task.

[illegible][illegible]

Figure 1

may fill them up, if the vestry do not. The board, with the consent of the Home Secretary, may mortgage the rates in order to pay for a burial ground. The management of the burial ground and the fixing of fees for interments is entrusted to the board, subject to regulations made by the Home Secretary. Parishes may concur in providing a common burial ground; and a burial board, instead of providing a cemetery, may contract for accommodation in the cemetery of some other authority. There are some rather complicated provisions under which a town council or other urban sanitary authority may acquire the powers of a burial board within its own area. The Select Committee on Poor-Law Guardians, 1878, were "clearly of opinion that in urban districts the separate existence of burial boards ought at once to cease, and that whenever any new duties are imposed by the legislature on such districts they should be carried out by the existing authorities."

There are other local authorities besides those which have been described within whose jurisdiction the English citizen may occasionally find himself. He may be the inhabitant of a drainage-board district or a Land Drainage Act district; but it would merely confuse the reader, without answering any practical purpose, to go into these special authorities and occasional jurisdictions.

Date	Description	Amount
1890	Jan 1 Balance	100.00
1891	Feb 15 Cash	50.00
1892	Mar 10 Cash	25.00
1893	Apr 5 Cash	15.00
1894	May 1 Cash	10.00
1895	Jun 1 Cash	5.00
1896	Jul 1 Cash	5.00
1897	Aug 1 Cash	5.00
1898	Sep 1 Cash	5.00
1899	Oct 1 Cash	5.00
1900	Nov 1 Cash	5.00
1901	Dec 1 Cash	5.00
1902	Jan 1 Cash	5.00
1903	Feb 1 Cash	5.00
1904	Mar 1 Cash	5.00
1905	Apr 1 Cash	5.00
1906	May 1 Cash	5.00
1907	Jun 1 Cash	5.00
1908	Jul 1 Cash	5.00
1909	Aug 1 Cash	5.00
1910	Sep 1 Cash	5.00
1911	Oct 1 Cash	5.00
1912	Nov 1 Cash	5.00
1913	Dec 1 Cash	5.00
1914	Jan 1 Cash	5.00
1915	Feb 1 Cash	5.00
1916	Mar 1 Cash	5.00
1917	Apr 1 Cash	5.00
1918	May 1 Cash	5.00
1919	Jun 1 Cash	5.00
1920	Jul 1 Cash	5.00
1921	Aug 1 Cash	5.00
1922	Sep 1 Cash	5.00
1923	Oct 1 Cash	5.00
1924	Nov 1 Cash	5.00
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CHAPTER X.

THE METROPOLIS.

Areas and Rating—Police—Licensing—Poor-Law Administration
—The Metropolitan Asylums Board—The Metropolitan Board
of Works—The Vestries and District Boards—The City Cor-
poration.

THIS volume would be incomplete without some reference to the Metropolis, but it would be impossible within the limits of space assigned to me to describe its system of government.¹ The Metropolis has no defined area, or rather its area differs for different purposes. The metropolitan police district differs from the metropolitan management district or postal district. What is generally understood by the Metropolis is the area under the jurisdiction of the Metropolitan Board of Works. The confusion which reigns supreme over local affairs in the rest of England is only worse confounded in the case of the Metropolis. The only part of the Metropolis which has a definitely-organised system of government is the City of London. The City has an area of some 700 acres and a "sleeping population" of about 50,000 persons.

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The greater London of the Registrar-General sprawls over some 120 square miles of ground, extends into four counties, and has a population of 3,814,371 persons. The constitution of the City of London is regulated by 120 charters, some 50 general Acts, and an unknown quantity of special Acts. London outside the City is regulated by about 120 general Acts, supplemented by an unknown quantity of special Acts. The fact that the Metropolis is so well governed as it is speaks well for the practical sagacity and honesty of purpose of those that rule the monster city. There are not infrequent hitches in the cumbrous machinery, but the marvel is that it moves at all. The amount collected by rates is about £5,500,000. The revenues of the City Corporation, including tolls and dues, come to about £1,500,000 more. There are nine different kinds of rates collected. The number of distinct rating authorities does not appear in any official return. Besides the City Corporation, the Metropolitan Board of Works, and the London School Board, there are twenty-eight boards of guardians and forty-three incorporated vestries and district boards. It is often said that there is no system in metropolitan government, and that legislation respecting it has proceeded on no settled principle. It may be doubted whether either of these statements is accurate. The theory of London government appears to be this :—There is in the centre a compact town of small dimensions, namely, the City ; around the City walls there is a fringe of country villages, which for the most part can be governed like other country parishes. Unfortunately the facts do not square with the theory. Hitherto so much the worse for the facts. When the facts have be-

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come obstreperous, some exceptional expedient has been resorted to—some special authority has been created to meet the need of the hour. The plan of putting a new legislative patch on to the old garment has been consistently pursued with the usual result. To give a methodical account of London government would be as difficult as to describe the pattern on a patchwork quilt. All that can be done is to give some description of the local authorities which constitute the more important patches. Before saying anything about the local authorities, it may be well to mention some exceptions to their jurisdiction. National buildings and most of the public parks are under the Office of Works, a State department consisting of a permanent staff and a parliamentary Chief Commissioner, who is appointed by the Government of the day, and goes out with his party. The Metropolitan Police Force, which consists of about 10,000 men, is under the direct control of the Home Secretary and is quite distinct from the City Police. The cost of the Metropolitan Police for 1881 was £1,148,000, while the cost of the City Police was about £100,000. The theatres in certain parts of London are licensed by, and are under the control of, the Lord Chamberlain. In the rest of the Metropolis, except the City, they are under the control of the various county justices. Music and dancing licenses and public-house licenses are in the hands of the county justices or city magistrates, as the case may be. The supply of gas and water for the most part is in the hands of private companies with special statutory powers.

The administration of the poor law is in several respects peculiar. In addition to the ordinary elective and *ex officio* guardians, there are guardians nominated

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The construction and management of asylums for the imbecile or insane, and hospitals for infectious cases, are taken out of the hands of the ordinary guardians and vested in the Metropolitan Asylums Board. The Board is a body corporate. The members of the Board are in part elected by the guardians of the several unions, in part nominated by the Local Government Board. The number of members is fixed by the Local Government Board. The present number is sixty, of whom fifteen are nominated and forty-five are elective members. The nominated members must never exceed one-third of the elective members. The elective members are chosen by the guardians either from among themselves or from the ratepayers of the union. The nominated members must be either justices of the peace or ratepayers resi-

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There is one school board for the whole Metropolis. The Board consists of fifty members, elected by the different districts into which for this purpose the metropolitan area is divided. The chairman is elected by the Board, and receives a salary. The members are elected by the different districts in the following proportions:—namely, Marylebone, 7; Finsbury, 6; Tower Hamlets, 5; Hackney, 5; Southwark, 5; The City, 4; Greenwich, 4; Westminster, 5; Chelsea, 4.¹

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The seventy-eight parishes in the metropolitan area outside the city boundary are governed by either vestries or district boards. There are twenty-three vestries ruling large single parishes, and fifteen district boards governing associated groups of parishes. The vestries and district boards are the sanitary and nuisance-removal authorities for their respective areas. They also superintend the lighting, paving, watering, and cleansing of the streets. Minor drainage works, supplemental to the main system, are also in their hands.

The London vestries are incorporated. The members must have a rating qualification of not less than £40 a year. They hold office for three years, one-third retiring annually. The elections are held in May. The number of vestrymen varies according to the population of the parish, but the maximum is 120. The candidates are proposed and seconded. If there be more candidates than vacancies the election takes place by ballot. The rector of the parish and the churchwardens are *ex officio* vestrymen. The accounts of the vestries are audited by elected auditors.²

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1. The first step is to identify the problem or question that needs to be answered. This involves understanding the context and the specific requirements of the task.

2. The second step is to gather relevant information and data. This can involve research, consultation with experts, or collecting data from various sources.

3. The third step is to analyze the information and data collected. This involves identifying patterns, trends, and relationships that can help in understanding the problem.

4. The fourth step is to develop a solution or answer. This involves applying the knowledge and skills gained from the previous steps to create a response that addresses the problem.

5. The fifth step is to evaluate the solution or answer. This involves checking the results against the original problem and requirements to ensure that the solution is effective and accurate.

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Abstract

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The members of the district boards are elected by the vestries of the combined parishes. The constitution of the district boards is in most respects similar to that of the vestries for single parishes.

The City of London has an area of about one square mile. Within its limits the Corporation is for nearly all purposes, except main drainage, the Local Authority. No one can deny the efficiency of the government within these narrow limits. The City has its own police system and its own courts. It is the sanitary authority for the port of London. It has the monopoly of all markets within seven miles of its boundary. It also has the right of collecting certain duties on all corn, coal, and wine brought into the port of London or the metropolitan area.

The Corporation exercises its functions through three assemblies—namely, the Court of Aldermen, the Court of Common Council, and the Court of Common Hall. The Lord Mayor is president of each of these assemblies.

The Court of Aldermen consists of twenty-six aldermen, including the Lord Mayor. The City is divided into twenty-six wards. There are twenty-four wards which each elect an alderman; two more wards elect an alderman between them; the remaining alderman sits for a twenty-seventh nominal ward, and the vacancy is usually bestowed on the senior alderman.¹ The aldermen hold office for life, are *ex officio* magistrates, and when sitting alone have the powers of ordinary justices sitting in petty sessions. The Court of Aldermen elects the Recorder, and licenses brokers, and has considerable financial control.

The Court of Common Council is the main legislative and executive body. It consists of the twenty-six aldermen

¹ Report of 1837, p. 6.

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and 240 common-council men elected annually in different proportions by the several wards. The electors at the ward-mote elections need not be citizens, but must have a certain property qualification in the City. The Court of Common Council acts chiefly through committees, the most important of which is the Commission of Sewers, who superintend the paving, lighting, and street management of the city. Most of the corporate officers are elected by the Common Council. The Commissioners of 1837 point out that "an unlimited command over the funds of the City is held by two independent bodies, the Court of Aldermen and the Court of Common Council." It does not seem, however, that much practical inconvenience arises from this anomaly.

The business of the Court of Common Hall is believed to be confined to the election of certain officers, the most important of which are the Lord Mayor, the Sheriffs, and the Chamberlain.

The right of citizenship is confined to members of the sixty-nine livery companies. Any livery man may take up his freedom and be enrolled as a citizen.

The Lord Mayor is chosen from among the aldermen who have served the office of sheriff. The Court of Common Hall names two aldermen—usually the two senior aldermen—qualified and willing to serve, and of the two thus named the Court of Aldermen selects one, usually the senior one. The Lord Mayor is the chief magistrate of the City, and is expected to take the lead in all City functions and other matters of public interest. During his year of office he lives at the Mansion House, and there dispenses hospitality on behalf of the city. His salary for the year is £10,000.

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The following table shows the results of the regression analysis for the dependent variable "Number of children in the household" (N = 1,000). The independent variables are "Age of the head of household" and "Gender of the head of household". The R-squared value is 0.15, indicating that 15% of the variance in the number of children is explained by these variables.

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1. *Journal of Management Studies*, 1997, 34, 1, 1-14.
 2. *Journal of Management Studies*, 1997, 34, 2, 1-14.

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1. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 2000; 284: 2689-2695.

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Nothing need be said about the functions performed by the Sheriffs and Auditors. The names of the offices sufficiently denote their duties. The Chamberlain is the treasurer of the Corporation. The Recorder, who is elected by the Court of Aldermen, is a judge of the Central Criminal Court, and chief judge of the Mayor's Court, which has an unlimited civil jurisdiction within the City limits. The Deputy-Recorder is called the Common Sergeant. He is elected by the Court of Common Council. So also is the judge of the City of London Court,—a court which has the jurisdiction of an ordinary county court. The principle of elective judges is a bad one; but the elections made have, as a rule, done great credit to the electors. There have, however, been exceptions.

Among the other more important officers elected by the Court of Common Council are the Town-Clerk, the Remembrancer, and the City Coroner.

The City Corporation is subject to no external control or audit, and, except in the matters where the Metropolitan Board of Works has jurisdiction, it enjoys complete independence.

Most of the more important local authorities exercising jurisdiction in the Metropolis have now been adverted to; but there are many minor authorities which ought to be described in order to give anything like a complete account of London government.¹ That, however, is outside the scope of a volume in this series.

¹ Such, for instance, as the Thames Conservancy Board, the various burial boards, the City of Westminster, etc.

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CHAPTER XI.

CENTRAL CONTROL.

Central Control—The Local Government Board—Its Functions—
Advice—Administrative Control—Audit—Limits of Central
Control.

THE supervision of the Central Government over local authorities is mainly exercised through a new department called the Local Government Board. School boards and school-attendance committees, as regards all matters relating to education, are under the control of the Education Department of the Privy Council, while financially they are mainly under the Local Government Board. In matters relating to the contagious diseases of animals, the Privy Council is the central controlling department; and as regards loans for certain local purposes, the sanction of the Treasury is required. Licenses to local authorities under the Electric Lighting Act are under the control of the Board of Trade. But the general superintendence of local affairs is now gathered together in the hands of the Local Government Board.

Before 1871 it was otherwise. The exercise of central supervision was scattered over various departments, having no organised communication with each

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Before 1871 it was otherwise. The exercise of central supervision was scattered over various departments, having no organised communication with each

other. The natural result was confusion and uncertainty of action. The evil and its remedy are thus stated by the Royal Sanitary Commission of 1869. "However local," they say in their Report, "the administration of affairs, a central authority will nevertheless be always necessary in order to keep the local executive everywhere in action—to aid it when higher skill or information is needed, and to carry out numerous functions of central superintendence. The causes of the present inefficiency of the central sanitary authority are obvious.

"(1.) Its want of concentration—the reference of general questions of local government being made to the Local Government Act Department of the Home Office; that of measures 'for diseases prevention' to the Privy Council; and that of other matters to the Board of Trade.

"(2.) The want of central officers, there being, for instance, no staff whatever for constant, and a very small one for occasional, inspection.

"(3.) The want of constant and official communication between central and local officers throughout the kingdom. A new statute therefore should constitute and give adequate strength to one central authority. There should be one recognised and sufficiently powerful minister, not to centralise administration, but, on the contrary, to set local life in motion—a real motive power, and an authority to be referred to for guidance and assistance by all the sanitary authorities for local government throughout the country. Great is the *vis inertiae* to be overcome; the repugnance to self-taxation; the practical distrust of science; and the number of persons interested in offending against sanitary laws, even amongst

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1. The first step is to identify the problem. This involves understanding the current situation and what needs to be improved.

Abstract

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 5. **Conclusion**
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1. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 2000; 283: 2689-2693.
 2. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 2000; 283: 2694-2698.
 3. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 2000; 283: 2699-2703.

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those who must constitute chiefly the local authorities to enforce them."

These recommendations were carried into effect by the Act of 1871.¹ The Act recites that "it is expedient to concentrate in one department of the Government the supervision of the laws relating to public health, the relief of the poor, and local government." It then proceeds to constitute a Local Government Board, to consist of "a President to be appointed by her Majesty, and to hold office during the pleasure of her Majesty," and of the following *ex officio* members—that is to say, the Lord President of the Council, all the Secretaries of State, the Lord Privy Seal, and the Chancellor of the Exchequer. The *ex officio* members are unpaid. The President is salaried. Provision is made that the President and one of the secretaries to the Board may sit in Parliament, and as a fact the President has always been a Cabinet Minister. The whole Board, it is believed, hardly or never meet. Questions of national importance of course come before the Cabinet. The President and the Department do all the work. The Act seems to contemplate this, for it provides that the Local Government Board may adopt an official seal and style, and that any act to be done or instrument to be executed may be done or executed in the name of the Board by the President or by a Secretary or Assistant-secretary, authorised so to do by any general order of the Board.

The Act vested in the new Board—(1) All the powers

¹ The Local Government Board Act, 1871, 34 and 35 Vict. c. 70. Since then five or six Acts have been passed conferring additional powers and duties on the Board in special matters. See, *e.g.*, the Local Taxation Returns Act, 1877; the District Auditors Act, 1879; and the Alkali Act, 1881.

Date	Description	Amount

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and duties of the Poor Law Board ; (2) All the powers and duties of the Privy Council relating to vaccination and the prevention of disease ; (3) All the powers and duties of the Home Office in relation to public health, drainage and sanitary matters, baths and wash-houses, public and town improvements, artisans' and labourers' dwellings, local government, local returns, and local taxation.

The Board reports annually to Parliament, and also furnishes exhaustive returns of local taxation, expenditure, loans, and debts.

The functions of the Board may be considered under three heads—namely, advice, administrative control, and financial control. In order to perform these functions, the Board, in addition to the ordinary staff of a Government office, has attached to it a staff of medical men, architects, and engineers, to conduct local investigations of a scientific or technical nature. Its public health and medical department is under the guidance of a distinguished member of the Royal Society.¹

In order that the Board may be able to offer efficient advice to the various local authorities who may consult it, it is essential that it should have the fullest information. It consequently has conferred on it large powers of demanding reports and returns of every sort and kind from local sources. Every year an immense stream of statistics is poured in to its various departments. Sir Charles Dilke, in reviewing its functions in a speech to his constituents, estimated the amount of statistical returns at its disposal at ten millions. It is the duty of the Board

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1. The purpose of this document is to provide information regarding the status of the project and the progress of the work. The information is being provided to you for your information and to ensure that you are kept up to date on the project.

2. The project is currently in the planning stage and the work is being completed as quickly as possible. The project is being completed as quickly as possible.

3. The project is currently in the planning stage and the work is being completed as quickly as possible. The project is being completed as quickly as possible.

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¹ Speech to constituents at Chelsea—*Times*, 2d January 1883.

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1. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 2000; 284: 2689-2695.

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¹ Speech to constituents at Chelsea—*Times*, 2d January 1883.

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The administrative control exercised by the Board over different local authorities varies considerably, as we have already seen. In poor-law matters the control is complete. The Board has power to create, dissolve, and amalgamate unions, and to regulate the proceedings of the guardians in the minutest particulars. Over municipalities proper the Board has no direct control. It is only when the borough wants to borrow money that the Board can step in and impose conditions. Over sanitary authorities the Board has considerable power, as we have seen, and it can force them to carry out sanitary measures to its satisfaction. It can by provisional order alter, amend, or repeal local Acts relating to sanitary authorities. These provisional orders, it is true, require confirmation by Parliament, but that is usually obtained as a matter of course. It can also authorise sanitary authorities by provisional order to acquire any necessary land by com-

the "new" sciences of the mind, and the "old" sciences of the body. The "new" sciences of the mind, such as psychology and sociology, were seen as more "scientific" and "objective" than the "old" sciences of the body, such as anatomy and physiology. This led to a growing emphasis on the study of the mind and behavior, and a corresponding decline in the study of the body. The "new" sciences of the mind were also seen as more "practical" and "useful" than the "old" sciences of the body, which were often seen as purely theoretical. This led to a growing emphasis on the application of the "new" sciences of the mind to the study of human behavior, and a corresponding decline in the application of the "old" sciences of the body to the study of human behavior. The "new" sciences of the mind were also seen as more "modern" and "progressive" than the "old" sciences of the body, which were often seen as "outdated" and "backward". This led to a growing emphasis on the study of the mind and behavior, and a corresponding decline in the study of the body.

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pulsory purchase. It can in like manner dissolve or alter the boundaries of local-board districts. It supervises and can alter or amend the bye-laws passed by sanitary authorities under the Public Health Act, 1875. As instances of bye-laws disallowed by the board, the following may be cited—namely, a bye-law prohibiting all boys from throwing stones in the town, a bye-law prohibiting persons from singing hymns in the streets, a bye-law forbidding strangers to bring dogs into the town, and a bye-law forbidding “lounging” on Sunday afternoon. The working of the Canal Boats Acts, the Rivers Pollution Prevention Acts, and the Alkali Acts, are under the special superintendence of the Local Government Board. It can confer on rural sanitary authorities all or any of the powers of urban sanitary authorities. The Board also has special and stringent powers for dealing with epidemics. In such case it may provide for the speedy interment of the dead, house-to-house visitation, and other requisite arrangements. Nearly all loans for local public works (except piers and harbours) have to be sanctioned by the Board, unless they are authorised by special Act of Parliament. In the Report for 1882 the Board say:¹ “Among the purposes for which we have sanctioned loans during the year have been included the construction, widening, paving, flagging, and channelling of streets; the erection of offices, public baths and wash-houses, bridges, gasworks, markets, hospitals, sea-defences; the provision of pleasure-grounds, cemeteries,

¹ *Eleventh Report, Local Government Board*, p. lxiv. The repayment of local loans, and the due payment of interest, the issue of debentures, etc., are now regulated by the Local Loans Act, 1875, 38 and 39 Vict. c. 83.

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The financial control exercised by the Board over local bodies is enforced in two ways. In the first place, as we have seen, when a local authority wishes to borrow under the powers given by the Public Health Act, 1875, and some other Acts, it must first obtain the sanction of the Board. The control in this direction is by no means complete, for it appears from the Board's last Report that since 1871 local bodies have obtained numerous special Acts, under which they have borrowed no less than £33,000,000. Under these Acts the sanction of the Board has not been requisite. The Board, however, have authorised loans to the extent of £24,000,000.

Secondly, the Board is charged with the duty of auditing the accounts of most local authorities. Municipal boroughs and counties are exempt from the central

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The financial control exercised by the Board over local bodies is enforced in two ways. In the first place, as we have seen, when a local authority wishes to borrow under the powers given by the Public Health Act, 1875, and some other Acts, it must first obtain the sanction of the Board. The control in this direction is by no means complete, for it appears from the Board's last Report that since 1871 local bodies have obtained numerous special Acts, under which they have borrowed no less than £33,000,000. Under these Acts the sanction of the Board has not been requisite. The Board, however, have authorised loans to the extent of £24,000,000.

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the same time, the fact that the same group of people, the same individuals, are found in the same place, and that they are found in the same place at the same time, is a very strong indication that they are the same people, and that they are found in the same place at the same time.

It is, however, not sufficient to show that the same group of people, the same individuals, are found in the same place, and that they are found in the same place at the same time, to prove that they are the same people, and that they are found in the same place at the same time.

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audit, but it embraces the accounts of poor-law guardians, rural sanitary authorities, urban sanitary authorities other than town councils, overseers of the poor, school boards, highway boards, and surveyors of highway parishes. For purposes of audit the country, exclusive of the Metropolis, is mapped out into thirty-three districts. The Board appoints officers called District Auditors, who under its directions conduct the audits on the spot. An appeal lies from the decision of the district auditor to the Board in respect of any disallowance or surcharge. As a rule, if the defaulting authority has made a *bond fide* mistake, the Board lets it off with a caution; but there is power to charge the defaulting authorities with any sums mis-spent, and occasionally in the interests of public justice this power is exercised by the Board. In 1880 the number of disallowances and surcharges reported by the district auditors was 6825. Poor-law accounts have for a long time been audited by the Central Government; but the extension of the audit to other local bodies is of recent date. The utility and efficacy of an independent audit is pointed out in the Report of the Poor Law Commissioners in 1837, where it is observed "that the negative duty not to apply a tax for an unauthorised purpose is more peculiarly fit to be enforced by an audit and account. When reinforced by an efficient remedy for the recovery of balances, and when the responsible party is in solvent circumstances, it is the most simple, ready, and self-acting of all expedients for the security of public property; and no other known administrative inquisition, and no judicial proceeding, either of a remedial or penal character, can be compared with it." When in

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1879 highway accounts were first brought under the audit, some curious applications of the rates came to light. In one parish a sparrow-shooting club for the farmers had for five and twenty years been supported by the highway rate. In another parish the mole-catchers' bills were paid out of the same source, the explanation being given that "having no other available source from which to pay the above, we paid it from the surveyor's account."¹ In two or three cases lately rewards for killing foxes were found to have been paid out of the rates. Considering that in most parts of rural England vulpicide and infanticide are thought to be crimes of about equal magnitude, it seems rather a strong measure to apply rates to either purpose. Among other items of disallowed expenditure we find champagne and plovers' eggs, visits to the theatre, journeying expenses when no journey was taken, presentation portraits, "suitable demonstrations" on the chairman's wedding day, memorial keys, and the like.

Whether the jurisdiction of the Board over local authorities ought to be extended or curtailed is a matter on which opinion may well be divided, but the value of its functions in giving advice and instruction can hardly be disputed. "Power," says Mr. J. S. Mill, "may be localised, but knowledge to be most useful must be centralised. There must be somewhere a focus at which all its scattered rays are collected, that the broken and coloured lights which exist elsewhere may find there what is necessary to complete and purify them. The Central Authority ought to keep open a perpetual communication with the localities, informing itself by their

¹ *Tenth Report, Local Government Board*, p. 43.

Date	Description	Amount
	To Balance	100.00
	By Cash	50.00
	By Cash	25.00
	By Cash	15.00
	By Cash	10.00
	By Cash	5.00
	By Cash	5.00
	By Cash	5.00
	By Cash	5.00
	By Cash	5.00
	By Cash	5.00
	By Cash	5.00
	By Cash	5.00
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experience, and them by its own, giving advice freely when asked, and volunteering it when it seems to be required."¹ At any rate, until our rural system of local government is better organised, the ratepayers will be grateful for the central audit; but the extent of the administrative control that the Central Government should exercise is a most difficult problem. Obedience to the general laws which the Legislature has laid down for the preservation of private and individual rights and the limitation of the power of local authorities, can be enforced by the courts of law; but how far ought local bodies to be allowed to mismanage their own affairs? If they are superintended by an intelligent and conscientious central department, armed with large executive powers, it is apt to err on the side of undue interference. When it sees things going wrong it steps in with a high hand to set them right. Yet it is only by a succession of tumbles that a child can learn to walk. A local authority in leading strings is not likely to learn aright the lesson of self-government. If local autonomy possesses the political value its admirers assert for it, it may be well worth while to make some temporary sacrifices to develop and strengthen it. In local matters "that which is best administered" may not be "best" in the long run. The tendency to regard all England as a suburb of London is certainly not a healthy one. Anything that can give vigour and colour to local life should be encouraged. In the case of local bodies, as in the case of individuals, it may be better and healthier to be too little governed than to be too much governed, even though the government be good. "Le difficile

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